

ELEMENTARY
HISTORY OF ROME,

BY

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MYTHOLOGY OF ANCIENT GREECE AND ITALY, &c.**

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P R E F A C E.

I HAVE so fully explained, in the preface to my Elementary History of England, the objects I had in view in writing these elementary works, that little remains to be said on the subject. I will only remind the reader that they are intended to occupy a station between histories and mere story-books, uniting the truth of the former with the entertainment afforded by the latter; being, in fact, historical story-books. If, therefore, they amuse those for whom they are intended, and at the same time inspire them with a taste for real history, their end will be attained.

As the narrative in this history, and still more in that of Greece, commences where it ends in my abridged Mythology, and it was impossible to avoid mentioning the objects of Greek and

Roman worship, I would recommend the study of that little work in union with these elementary histories.

Though no one can dislike more than I do the use of Roman names clipped down after the French fashion, such as Pompey, and though in my other works I have always avoided them, I have, in compliance with the usual practice, employed them here.

T. K.

London, April 3, 1811

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AN
ELEMENTARY
HISTORY OF ROME.

CHAPTER I.

Ænéas.—The Kings of Alba.

THE Roman historians have related the early annals of the city of Rome in the following manner :—

When Troy was taken by the Greeks, a Trojan prince named Ænéas; and said to be a son of the goddess Venus by a mortal father, fled from that city, and embarking with those who would follow his fortunes sailed westwards. After a variety of adventures he reached the coast of Látium on the western side of Italy, and Latínus, the king of the country, allowed him to settle there, and gave him his daughter Lavínia in marriage.

Some time after, in a war with the people of

the country, Æneas disappeared on the banks of a river (whether drowned or not was uncertain), and he was thenceforth worshipped as a god. He was succeeded by his son, named Ascanius or Iulus, who had accompanied him from Troy; and this prince removed his people from the sea-coast and built a town over a lake on the side of a mountain, which from its appearance was named Alba Longa, or as we might express it in English, Long Whitton.

The family of Æneas reigned in Alba for the space of three hundred years. One of the last of these monarchs, when dying, left two sons, named Numitor and Amulius, the former of whom being of a quiet, gentle temper, the ambitious younger brother deprived him of the throne, and left him only the lands belonging to the family. The son of Numitor was a young man of some spirit; and Amulius fearing lest he might assert his right to the throne, caused him to be murdered as he was out hunting. As Numitor's only remaining child was a daughter named Silvia, Amulius, to prevent her from marrying, placed her among the Vestal Virgins, who were a kind of nuns, whose duty it was to watch the sacred fire which burned perpetually in the temple of the goddess Vesta.

Romulus and Remus.

But all the precautions of Amulius proved vain. One day when Silvia went into the sacred grove of the god Mars to draw water for the use of the temple she saw a wolf, and fled for refuge into a cavern. While she was there the god himself appeared to her and made her his spouse. In due time the pains of labour came on her in the very temple of Vesta, and she gave birth to twins. Amulius immediately ordered herself and her babes to be cast into the river Tiber. The god of the stream, it was said, saved and espoused Silvia; the protecting care of their sire was extended to the innocent babes. The ark or trough in which they had been placed, floated along the river till it reached some hills on its side, where the river had overflowed. It upset in the soft mud at the foot of one of them. A she-wolf who came to slake her thirst heard their whimpering, she conveyed them to her den on the hill, and there suckled them with the fondness of a mother. A woodpecker also brought them food, and they thrive and grew strong. At length Faustus, the king's herdsman, who lived on the hill, happened to discover them; the wolf, as her task

was now accomplished, retired, and he took them to his cottage and reared them with his own sons.

The twins, who were named Rómulus and Remus, when they grew up distinguished themselves among the shepherd-lads by their strength and courage. They had many encounters with the herdsmen of Numitor, whose cattle fed on one of the adjacent hills, and in one of these Remus was made a prisoner and carried away to Alba. The king handed him over to Numitor, who, struck with the noble appearance of the youth, questioned him about his parentage, and on hearing his story began to suspect that he might be his grandson. Faustulus meantime, who had a similar suspicion, revealed his thoughts to Romulus, and that fiery youth resolved at once to free his brother and restore his grandsire to his rights. His comrades, by his directions, entered Alba at different parts, and then uniting fell on and slew the tyrant and placed Numitor on the throne.

The two brothers resolved to build a town for themselves, and their old rustie comrades joined them in their project. The place which they fixed on was the hills where they had passed their boyish days. But a dispute arose as to which of the hills should be its site, and after which of the

brothers it should be named: They then agreed that each should sit on his hill at midnight and watch for the flight of particular kinds of birds. They did so. Day came and went and no birds appeared; toward dawn of the second day Remus saw six vultures; at sunrise the news came to Romulus; but just then twelve vultures flew past him. A contest therefore arose, as, though Remus had seen the birds first, a double number had appeared to Romulus, and the party of the latter proved the stronger. The town was therefore to be called Rome, and to be built on the Palatine hill. Romulus drove a plough round the hill to mark out the extent of his town, and on the line drawn by the plough his men began to erect a wall. Remus in derision leaped over the rising wall, and Romulus in a rage struck him with a spade and killed him, crying, "So perish he who would leap over my walls!" but grief soon succeeded to his rage, and it was long before he could be comforted.

Romulus. 57

As a means of increasing the population of his new town, Romulus opened an Asylum, or place of refuge for all who might choose to resort to it.

Those who came were naturally of a very indifferent character, such as debtors, criminals and runaway slaves; and as there could be of course few or no women among his subjects, he was greatly perplexed how to get wives for them; for the people of the neighbouring towns, when he applied to them, would on no account bestow their daughters in marriage on such a rabble. He therefore had recourse to artifice, and he proclaimed through all the surrounding country that on a certain day horse-races and other games would be celebrated at Rome. On the appointed day a good number of the neighbouring people came to Rome accompanied by their wives and daughters. The sports began, and while the strangers were eagerly gazing the Roman youths rushed in with drawn swords and carried off a number of their maidens. The parents fled in dismay, calling on the gods to avenge such perfidy. The people of the insulted cities took arms against the Romans; but as they did not unite, and each attacked them singly, they were all in succession overcome by Romulus and his hardy subjects.

Among the people whose daughters were thus torn away from them were the Sabines, a hardy

and valiant race. After making due preparation they advanced against Rome, led by their king, Titus Tatius. As they came down the banks of the Tiber the Capitoline hill lay between them and Rome, which stood on the Palatine. The Romans had placed a garrison on that hill; but Tarpeia, the daughter of the governor, as she went down to draw water, met the Sabines, and she agreed to open a gate for them if they would give her what they wore on their left arms, meaning their golden bracelets. She kept her word; but when she claimed her reward they cast their shields which they bore on their left arms on her, and the traitress perished beneath their weight.

The Romans were now in possession of one hill and the Sabines of another, and the valley between them (afterwards called the Forum) was their battle field. Here, as the two armies were hotly engaged, the Sabine women suddenly appeared to them with their garments rent and their hair dishevelled, and called on their fathers and husbands to cease from the impious conflict. Both sides dropped their arms and stood in silence. A conference was then held and a treaty was concluded, by which it was agreed that the two nations should unite and form one people, and that

Romulus and Tatius should be their joint sovereigns. The united nation was divided into two orders, the Patricians or nobility and gentry, and the Plebeians or people.

Peace being thus established, the affairs of Rome flourished more and more every day. At length Tatius having been slain in a private quarrel with some of the people of one of the adjacent towns, Romulus once more reigned alone. He was just in peace and victorious in war, and he was held in respect and honour abroad and at home. After he had reigned seven and thirty years, as he was one day reviewing his army, there came on a sudden storm which dispersed the people and made them fly to shelter, and amid the thunder, lightning and rain, Mars, it is said, descended in his flaming chariot and carried his son away to the abode of the gods. When the tempest was over the people returned, but their king was nowhere to be found, and they were inconsolable for his loss, till a respectable man came forward and assured them that as he was coming from Alba by moonlight Romulus had appeared to him in glory and bade him to tell his people not to lament him, but to worship him as a god under the name of Quirinus.

Numa Pompilius.

At Rome, as everywhere else, there was a senate, composed of the more aged and respectable citizens, to act as a council and to make laws. After the disappearance of Romulus the senate tried to keep the government in its own hands; but the people were not satisfied, and insisted on having a king. It was then agreed that the king should be a Sabine, but that he should be chosen by the Romans. The person selected was Numa Pompilius, a native of the Sabine town of Cures, a man famous for his wisdom and virtue. The reign of this prince was long and free from war. His thoughts were all turned to the arts of peace and the introduction of a respect for religion among the rude people over whom he had been called to rule, and it was to him that Rome was chiefly indebted for her religious institutions. A goddess named Egéria had, it was said, espoused this pious prince, and she used to meet him in a grove at a fount named from herself, and gave him instructions which might enable him to make wise laws for his people. It was also said that when one time Rome was visited by terrific lightnings and thunder, Numa caused the god Jupiter

to descend from heaven and teach him how they might be averted.

Tullus Hostilius.

The next king, named Tullus Hostilius, was of a character more like that of Romulus than of Numa. He was therefore anxious for war, and he soon contrived to pick a quarrel with the people of Alba. The two armies met; and as they stood in array of battle, the Alban general, named Mettius, proposed that to avoid bloodshed their dispute should be decided by a single combat of three champions on each side, the people whose champion should be defeated being to submit to the other. Though Tullus would have preferred a battle, he could not reject so reasonable a proposal, and the treaty was made.

There happened to be in each army three twin-brothers, whose mothers were sisters; the Romans were named the Horatii, the Albans the Curiatii. To these the combat was committed, and they advanced fully armed into the space between the two armies, who sat down in their ranks to view the combat. When they met they drew their swords and engaged hand to hand. Their countrymen viewed the encounter in deep silence. At

length two of the Romans were seen to fall dead; the third, however, was still unhurt, and all the Albans were wounded. A shout of triumph rose in the Alban army; the Romans gave up all hope, and now their only surviving champion was seen flying like a coward. But his flight was only feigned, in order that he might separate his antagonists. When he saw one of the Curiatii in advance of his brothers, he turned and slew him; the same fate befell each of the others as he came up. The surviving Horatius remained sole master of the field, and Alba submitted to Rome.

When the Roman army returned home, Horatius marched proudly at its head, bearing the arms and other spoils of those he had slain. At the gate of the city he was met by his sister, who was the promised bride of one of the Curiatii. When she saw among the bloody spoils a surcoat which she had woven with her own hands and given to her lover, she loosed her hair and bewailed his fate. Her brother in a rage drew his sword and plunged it into her bosom, crying, "Such be the fate of her who bewails an enemy of Rome!" The bystanders were filled with horror; the murderer was seized and led before the king, at whose order he was tried by the

judges. Their sentence was that he should be scourged and then hanged. The officers were laying hold on him, when, by the king's advice, he appealed to the people. His father pleaded for him with tears, and the people acquitted him of the murder.

A war broke out some time after between the Romans and the people of the neighbouring town of Fidénæ. Tullus summoned the Albans to his standard, and in the battle he placed them on the right wing of his army; but Mettius, who had secretly kindled the war, gradually drew off his troops in order that the Romans might be defeated. His plan, however, did not succeed; his treachery was detected, and the enemy was routed. When the victory was won he came to congratulate Tullus, who took no notice of his conduct, but received him kindly, and he thought himself secure. Next day the king assembled all his troops; the Albans, to prove their loyalty, came the first and stood around him unarmed. Meantime the Romans, by Tullus' directions, took their arms and surrounded them. When they were thus taken in the toils the king reproached Mettius with his treachery; a heavy punishment he told him awaited *him*: Alba should be destroyed

and its people be removed to Rome. Resistance now was hopeless; two chariots were brought, and Mettius' legs and arms were bound to them; they were then driven, the one toward Rome, the other toward Fidenæ, and the traitor was thus torn asunder. Troops had meantime gone to Alba and commenced the destruction of the town. The temples of the gods alone were left standing; one of the hills at Rome was assigned to the Albans for their abode.

Ancus Marcius.

The successor of Tullus was Ancus Marcius, the grandson of Numa, whom he resembled in character. His reign therefore was peaceful and marked by few events.

In the reign of this king a distinguished stranger came and fixed his abode at Rome. His name was Tarquinius, the son of a man of rank at Corinth in Greece, who having quitted his own country came and settled at the city of Tarquinii in Etruria. His son married a Tuscan lady named Tánaquil, by whose suggestion, as on account of his foreign origin he was an object of jealousy in his native city, he resolved to remove to Rome. As he was about to enter that city an

eagle came flying, and gently took his hat from off his head and carried it up into the air, and then returning set it on his head again. This Tanaquil, who, like the Tuscans in general, was skilled in the meaning of signs, regarded as a favourable omen, and she congratulated her husband on the good fortune it promised him.

Tarquinius, on account of his wealth and his polished manners, soon became a favourite with both the king and the people. Ancus, when dying, even made him guardian to his sons; but he did not prove faithful to his trust; for, after the death of the king, having sent the young men out to hunt at the time when the people were to meet to choose a king, he caused himself to be elected by them, and he thus became the fifth king of Rome.)

Tarquin the Elder.

Tarquinius, or as he is usually called Tarquin, proved an able and a powerful monarch, wise in peace and victorious in war. He greatly improved the city, and he made some alteration in the constitution of the state. One of his proposed changes not being agreeable to the nobility, they employed an augur or soothsayer, named Attius Navius, to oppose it. The king, annoyed

at his opposition, told him to augur if what he was then thinking of could be done. Navius replied that it could. "Then," cried the king triumphantly, "I was thinking that you should cut a whetstone through with a razor." The augur took the stone and razor and did as the king required.

In one of the wars of king Tarquinius, on the taking of a town, when the people were reduced to slavery, according to the usual custom, a woman of some rank fell to the share of the king, in whose house she became a servant. While there she saw one day a vision of the fire-god, and Tanaquil immediately arrayed her as a bride, and shut her up in the apartment where she had had the vision. She in consequence became a mother, and her child was named Servius Tullius. The child was brought up in the palace; and one day when he fell asleep in the porch, flames were observed to play round his head without doing him the slightest injury. From this Tanaquil inferred that he was destined to greatness, and she caused him to be brought up with the greatest care; and when he was grown to man's age, and had given proofs of wisdom and courage, she united him in marriage with her daughter, and it was generally supposed that the king intended him for his successor.

Tarquin had now reigned for the space of eight and thirty years, during all which time the sons of Ancus had waited patiently expecting to obtain the throne quietly at his death; but now seeing his favour to Servius, they resolved to delay no longer, and they hired two ferocious peasants to murder the king. These men went to the doors of the palace and there pretended to quarrel; the servants ran to separate them; and as they kept appealing to the king for justice, they were led into his presence. Here, while Tarquin was listening to the one, the other gave him a deadly wound with an axe in the head. The murderers fled, but they were pursued and taken. The dying king was carried into the palace, and Tanaquil, ordering the doors to be shut, told Servius that now was his time to secure the throne. She addressed the people who had assembled from a window, telling them that the king's wound was not fatal, that he would soon recover, and that meantime Servius was to exercise his authority. Servius then appeared with the ensigns of royalty, and after some days the death of the king was made known, and Servius succeeded without any opposition.

Servius Tullius.

The reign of Servius was peaceful, like that of Numa. He was the poor man's friend; he paid the debts of those who were in distress, and he bestowed lands on those whose poverty was pressing. He also divided the people into classes, so that their taxes should be in proportion to their property.

This good king reigned more than forty years in peace and prosperity. At length his life was terminated by crime, in the following manner. He had given his two daughters in marriage to the two sons, or rather grandsons, of the late king Tarquinius, named Lucius and Aruns. As the former was of a haughty, violent temper, he united him with the more gentle of his daughters, while he gave Tullia, his other daughter, who was proud and violent, to Aruns, whose character was the opposite of his brother's. Soon, however, Lucius and Tullia fell in love with each other; and when his wife and her husband died suddenly (poisoned perhaps), they made the king consent to their marriage.

Urged on by his unprincipled wife, and relying on the support of the patricians, who were dis-

pleased at the laws of king Servius, Tarquinius resolved to usurp the throne. Accordingly he went one day, surrounded by armed men, to the senate-house, and ordered the herald to summon the senators to meet king Tarquinius. When they came he addressed them, stating his claims to the throne. While he was speaking the king arrived, and demanded why he dared to take the royal seat. Tarquinius made an insolent reply, and then seizing him round the waist, flung him down the steps of the senate-house. The king, sorely bruised by the fall, got up and was slowly moving homewards, when he was overtaken and slain by those who had been sent after him by the usurper, and his body was left lying in the street.

As soon as Tullia heard of what had been done, she mounted her chariot and drove to the senate-house. She called her husband out, and was the first to salute him king. At his desire she then went home, and her way chanced to lie through the street where her father had been slain. The mules which drew her chariot started when they came to the corpse of the king; the driver, in horror, turned and looked his mistress in the face. "Why do you stop?" cried she. "See you not

the body of your father?" replied the man. She flung the footstool at his head; he lashed on the mules, and the chariot passed over the body of the king, whose blood spirted over the clothes of his unnatural child. It was reported that when, some time after, Tullia entered a temple in which there stood a statue of her father, it covered its face with its hands, and was heard to say, "Hide me, that I may not behold my impious daughter."

Tarquin the Proud.

Tarquin maintained by cruelty the crown he had acquired by crime, and all orders of the people soon saw cause to regret the good Servius. He put to death such of the senators as he disliked or feared; and he surrounded himself with a guard of armed men, a thing which none of the kings before him had done.

There was a league between the Romans and the people called the Latins. This league had been effected by Servius, and the Roman king was placed at the head of it. The deputies used to meet in a certain grove to consult about public business; and when one time king Tarquin had called a meeting, and the Latin deputies had,

as usual, assembled at day-dawn, they waited in vain the whole day long for the appearance of the Roman monarch, and one of them, named Turnus Herdonius, took occasion to speak strongly of Tarquin's pride and insolence, and he advised them to stay no longer waiting on his leisure, but to separate and go to their homes. In the evening Tarquin came, and excused his absence by saying that the cause of his delay had been his having to make up a quarrel between a father and his son. As it was then too late to do any business, the meeting was put off till the next morning. Tarquin, who had heard of all that Turnus had said, bribed his slave secretly to convey a great number of swords into his lodgings, and a little before day he called the deputies together. He then told them that his delay on the preceding day had been most providential, for that he had since discovered that it was Turnus' plan to kill both him and them, and to make himself an absolute prince. He now prayed them to come and see if his information was correct. They all went to Turnus' lodgings and awoke him from his sleep; the house was searched, the arms were found; he could give no satisfactory account of them, and he was therefore condemned at once.

He was led to the neighbouring fount and thrown into it; a hurdle, on which stones were piled, was put over him, and he thus was drowned.

Tarquin had long been at war with the people of the town of Gabii without being able to conquer them. At length he concerted with his son Sextus a plan for overcoming them by treachery. Sextus, pretending that his life was in danger from his father's cruelty, fled for refuge to Gabii. The people believed his tale, and pitied him. They even made him their general; and his power and influence over them soon became supreme. He then sent a trusty messenger to his father to know from him how he should act. Tarquin took the messenger into his garden and walked up and down it with him, striking off the heads of the taller poppies as he went along, but gave him no reply. When the messenger returned he told his master of the strange conduct of the king, but Sextus knew what his father meant. He gradually contrived to have the chief men of the place banished or put to death, and he then easily delivered up Gabii to his father.

As Tarquin had acquired great wealth by his wars, he resolved to employ it in building a stately

temple to Jupiter, Juno, and Minerva, the three great deities of Rome. For its site he selected one of the summits of the hill which Tarpeia had betrayed to the Sabines. It was said that as the workmen were sinking the foundations, they found in the ground the head of a man still fresh and bleeding; and as *caput* is 'head' in the Latin language, the temple, and from it the hill itself, was named the Capitol. The soothsayers also declared that this event signified that Rome would be the head of all Italy.

One day there came a strange woman to the king with nine books which she offered to sell him for three hundred pieces of gold. He refused to purchase them, and she then went away, and having burnt three of them, returned and demanded the same price for the remaining six. The king still refusing to buy, she burned three more, and her price was still the same. Tarquin, now suspecting some mystery, consulted the augurs, who blamed him greatly for not having bought the whole, and advised him to hesitate no longer. He therefore paid the money, and the woman, when she had delivered the books, vanished from his sight. She was one of those prophetic women who were named Sibyls,

and her books were called the Sibylline books, or oracles; they were kept in the Capitol, and were consulted on matters of importance to the state.

Prodigies of various kinds came to disturb the repose of the king. One day, for example, as he was offering a sacrifice to the gods, a serpent came out of the altar, seized the flesh of the victim, and put out the fire. This seemed so ominous, that Tarquin sent two of his sons to consult the famous oracle of Delphi, in Greece, about its meaning. There went with them their cousin Lucius Junius, who was nicknamed Brutus, that is, Fool; for when Tarquin had put his elder brother to death to get his property, Lucius, to save his life, counterfeited folly.

The reply of the oracle was, that Tarquin would fall when a dog (meaning Brutus) spake with a human voice. The Tarquins then asked which of them should reign at Rome. "He who first kisses his mother," was the reply. They resolved not to tell Sextus, and to decide by lot between themselves. But Brutus, who saw the meaning of the oracle better than they, pretended to stumble and fall as they were leaving the temple; and as he lay on the ground he kissed the earth, the common mother of all. His offer-

ing to the god had been his staff of cornel-wood, which he had secretly filled with gold, an emblem of himself.

Story of Lucretia.

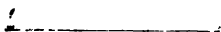
Tarquin some time after laid siege to a town named Ardea. As it stood on the summit of a steep hill it could only be reduced by blockade, and the Roman army lay encamped around it. While they were thus inactive, the king's sons amused their leisure by mutual banquets; and at one of these, they and their cousin Collatinus fell into a dispute about the virtues of their wives. When they could not settle the matter by argument, they agreed to mount their horses that very moment, and to go and take their wives by surprise. They rode first to Rome, and arriving just at nightfall, found the royal ladies revelling at a banquet. They then went on to Collatia, where Collatinus' house was, and though it was late in the night when they arrived, his wife Lucretia was sitting spinning among her maids. The prize was at once yielded to her, and she entertained her husband and his cousins with cheerfulness and modesty. They then mounted their horses and returned to the camp.

A few days after, Sextus Tarquin came to Collatia attended by a single slave, and went to the house of Collatinus. Lucretia received him as her husband's kinsman, and a chamber was assigned him for the night. He retired, but when all was still he arose, and taking his drawn sword in his hand, sought the chamber of his hostess. He awoke her with declarations of love; he prayed, he besought, but all in vain. He then menaced to slay her, and with her his slave, and to declare that he had caught them in the act of adultery, and thus punished them. The dread of a disgraced memory effected what no other motive could, and she submitted to his wishes. In the morning he arose and returned to the camp before Ardea. Lucretia immediately sent trusty messengers to summon her husband and her father, Lucretius. They came; the former accompanied by Brutus, whom he chanced to meet on the way; the latter by Valerius, a man of rank at Rome. They found Lucretia sitting mournful in her chamber. She told them all that had happened, and implored them to avenge her, declaring that she would not survive her disgrace. They tried to console her, but she drew a concealed knife, and before they were aware, plunged

it into her heart. Her husband and father gave a loud cry of grief; but Brutus seized the bloody weapon, and drawing it from the wound, swore on it eternal hatred to the tyrant and his family. He handed it to the others, and all of them took the same oath, amazed at the sudden change which had come over him. The body of Lucretia was brought out into the market-place, and Brutus, pointing to the wound, excited the people to vengeance. They thence went to Rome, where Brutus assembled the people, and told them his own story and that of Lucretia, and displayed the crimes and the cruelty of the tyrant. The multitude cried out that there should be no more kings at Rome. Brutus then set out with a select body of men for the camp; Tarquin meantime, hearing what had occurred, was on his way, but by a different road, to Rome. Brutus was received with shouts of joy by the soldiers; the tyrant found the gates of the city closed against him. He retired to Etruria. Sextus, the author of all the evil, went to Gabii, where he was slain soon after by the relations of those whom he had caused to be put to death.

Thus was royalty ended at Rome. Instead of kings, it was resolved to have two magistrates,

named Consuls, to be appointed every year. The first consuls chosen were Brutus and Collatinus.



CHAPTER II. /

Conspiracy in favour of Tarquin.

TARQUIN had retired to the city of Tarquinii, the original abode of his family, and the people of that city agreed to aid him in his attempt to recover the throne. As he had still a great many friends at Rome, and the young men of rank were not well pleased with the strictness of the new government, he had hopes of being restored through their means. For this purpose an embassy was sent to Rome under the pretext of demanding the property belonging to himself and his friends, but in reality to engage the young nobility in a conspiracy for his restoration. The senate at once agreed to give up the property; but the ambassadors delayed at Rome under the pretence of collecting it and getting wagons to carry it away. Meantime the conspiracy was formed; and, strange to say, among those engaged in it, were the nephews of Collatinus and the sons of Brutus.

As the ambassadors required of them letters to Tarquin, sealed with their signets, they met for this purpose under the pretext of a sacrifice. When it was over, they ordered the slaves all to retire; but one of them, named Vindicius, suspecting what they were about, remained outside, and through a slit in the door marked all their proceedings. He lost no time in giving information to the consuls, and they were taken in the fact.

Early next morning, the two consuls sat on their tribunal in the Forum or market-place. The conspirators were led before them. As the Roman law gave a father the power of life and death over his children, Brutus, by virtue of his paternal authority, condemned his sons to death. They were stripped and scourged according to the custom, and their heads were then struck off with the axe: Not a feature of Brutus was seen to change during this awful scene. The other conspirators had now no claims for mercy, and all were beheaded. The slave was given his liberty and a gift from the treasury. The ambassadors were dismissed, but the tyrant's property was given to the people. A piece of ground which he owned outside of the city, was consecrated to the god Mars, and named the Campus Martius, or Field of Mars.

So great was the aversion now felt towards the whole family of Tarquin, that Collatinus was soon after obliged to lay down his office, quit Rome, and go to live in another city.

Death of Brutus.

The Tarquinians, and others of the Etruscans, now took arms in the cause of the exiled Roman tyrant. Their troops approached the Tiber; the Romans advanced to meet them, their cavalry being commanded by the consul Brutus, the infantry by his colleague Valerius. Aruns, the son of Tarquin, who led the Etruscan cavalry, seeing Brutus, spurred his horse against him; the consul did not shrink from the encounter, and both fell dead to the earth. A general engagement ensued; night ended the conflict; neither side believed itself vanquished; but at the dead hour of night a voice was heard from a neighbouring wood, saying that the victory was with the Romans, as one more had fallen on the side of the Tuscans. At dawn no enemy was to be seen, and the Romans having counted the slain on both sides, found what the voice had said to be the exact truth. They then collected the spoil and returned to Rome: on the following day the funeral of Brutus

was performed. The Roman ladies were mourning for him an entire year, as for the avenger of injured chastity, and his statue was placed among those of the kings on the Capitol.

Horatius Cocles.

There was a very powerful prince in Etruria, named Porsenna, and to him did Tarquin now apply, and he succeeded in inducing him to arm in his cause. Porsenna, without delay, put himself at the head of his troops, and occupied the Janiculan hill, which was close to Rome, on the Tuscan side of the Tiber, and a wooden bridge led from it to the city. The guard of the Janiculan fled over this bridge; the Tuscans pressed after them, and might have entered the city pell-mell with them, but that a brave youth, named Horatius Cocles, with two others, singly withstood them. The Romans meantime were breaking down the bridge; Horatius made his two companions retire, and singly opposed the enemy till a loud crash told him that the bridge was broken; he then plunged, armed as he was, into the river, and though the Tuscans showered their darts on him as he swam, he reached the other side in safety.

Mucius Scævola.—Clælia,

Porsenna encamped on the banks of the Tiber, and the city was sore pressed. Then a noble youth, named Mucius, went to the senate and asked leave to cross the river. Permission was granted, and, armed with a concealed dagger, he entered the Tuscan camp. Porsenna was just then giving their pay to his troops with his secretary sitting by his side. As they were dressed in nearly the same manner, and Mucius feared lest he might be discovered if he asked any questions, he plunged his dagger into the secretary, taking him for the king. He tried to escape, but he was seized and dragged before the judgement-seat of Porsenna. He made no attempt at concealment, and he told the king that there were many noble Roman youths prepared to follow his example. Porsenna then threatened to burn him alive, but Mucius, thrusting his hand into the fire which was on the altar, held it there without showing any signs of pain. The king leaped from his seat, removed him from the altar, and granted him his life and liberty. Mucius then told him that he was one of three hundred young men who had

sworn his death, and that the lot had first fallen on him, but that the others would take their turn. He then returned to Rome, and he and his posterity bore the name of *Scævola* or *Left-handed* to commemorate the deed.

From what *Mucius* had told him, *Porsenna* now became anxious for peace. The terms were soon arranged, and ten youths and as many maidens were sent as hostages to the Tuscan camp. One of the maidens, named *Clœlia*, then urged her female companions to attempt their escape; and having eluded the vigilance of their guards, they plunged into the *Tiber* and swam across. When *Porsenna* sent to demand them, the senate sent them back, and *Porsenna* then gave *Clœlia* permission to select as many of the hostages of the other sex as she would to be set at liberty with herself, and presented her with a stately horse and trappings. She selected the youngest among the hostages, and the senate, to reward her, erected a statue of her on horseback. *Porsenna* gave the Romans his camp and all that it contained; and they in return sent him an ivory throne, a crown and sceptre of gold, and an embroidered robe such as their kings used to wear.

Battle of the Regillus.

Tarquin now turned to the Latins, to one of whose principal men, Mamilius of Túsculum, his daughter was married. Before the war was ventured on, a truce for a year was made between the Romans and the Latins for arranging their private affairs, and the women of each people who had married into the other were permitted to return to their families and friends. All the Roman women, it is said, returned, and only two of the Latins left Rome.

The decisive battle was fought on the shores of the lake Regillus, near Tusculum. The Romans had lately created a new magistracy consisting of two officers, namely a Dictator, and a Master of the Horse, or general of the cavalry, and these now commanded the Roman army. The Latins were led by Mamilius; and king Tarquin, old as he now was, placed himself at the head of a body of Roman exiles. When he saw the dictator he spurred his horse against him, but he received a wound in the side which forced him to retire. The master of the horse and Mamilius encountered; the former had an arm broken; the latter, though struck in the breast by his opponent's

spear, received no injury ; and he then put himself at the head of the exiles. Three of the Valerian family fell, but the dictator came up and routed the exiles, and Mamilius was slain. The Roman horsemen then dismounted and fought on foot ; their example gave spirit to the infantry ; the Latins turned and fled, and the horsemen remounted and pursued them ; the Latin camp was taken. Tarquin fled to the city of Cumæ, where he ended his days.


During the battle, it is said, the dictator vowed, according to the Roman custom, a temple to the twin-gods Castor and Pollux ; and it is added, that two young men of great size, and mounted on white horses, were seen taking an active part in the fight, and that before the pursuit was over they appeared at Rome covered with blood and dirt, and washed themselves and their arms at a fount near the temple of Vesta, and having announced the victory they then vanished.

CHAPTER III.

Distress of the Plebeians.

AFTER the expulsion of the kings the patricians had the government entirely in their own hands, and they acted very oppressively toward the people. As the patricians, who were rich, refused to pay taxes, the whole burden of them fell upon the plebeians, who were in consequence reduced to great distress, and they were obliged to borrow money from the wealthy patricians at a very high rate of interest; and when they could not pay the interest, their creditors used to add it to the capital, and charge interest on the whole. The Roman law on the subject of debt was very severe. A debtor who could not pay became the slave of his creditor, and even his children and grandchildren were led off to the creditor's slave-house and forced to work for him.

The people bore this hard treatment for some years. At length one day, as they were assembled in the Forum, an old man rushed among them covered with rags and filth, and pale and emaciated. He implored them to protect him, showing the scars of the wounds he had received in eight and twenty battles in the service of his country.

Many who knew him as a gallant captain inquired the cause of his present wretched appearance. He told them, that while he was serving against the Sabines his house and farm-yard had been plundered and burnt by the enemy; but the taxes had still been demanded of him, and he was obliged to borrow money to pay them, in consequence of which himself and his two sons had become the slaves of his creditor. He then stripped his back and showed the marks of recent stripes. A general uproar arose, the people became clamorous for some change in the law, the senate were in doubt how to , when tidings came that the people named the Volscians had invaded the Roman territory. The people then exulted, and told the patricians to go and fight their own battles, for as for themselves the war did not concern them, as they had nothing to lose. At length the consuls, by declaring that no one who was in slavery for debt should be prevented from serving if he pleased, and that no one should seize the children or property of any man who was under arms, prevailed on the people to let themselves be enrolled for the army. Instantly debtors were seen hastening on all sides from their dungeons, and a large army was raised, with which one of

the consuls took the field. The Volscians were everywhere beaten, and one of their principal towns was taken, and the plunder given up to the victorious soldiers. But when they returned to Rome, the other consul, Appius Claudius, an iron-hearted man, ordered the debtor-slaves back to their dungeons, and began to give other debtors up to their creditors. The people, however, stood on their defence, and drove back the officers who were sent to seize the debtors, and nothing further was done at that time.

Secession to the Sacred Mount.

Another war having broken out, the people were induced to serve by the promises of relief that were held out to them ; but when they had defeated the enemy, the senate would not keep faith with them ; and seeing that they had no chance of a legal relief, instead of letting themselves be disbanded as usual, they crossed the river Anio, and encamped on an eminence about three miles from Rome ; the plebeians in the city meantime occupied the hill named the Aventine, and there was every prospect of a civil war between them and the patricians. Fearing that the enemies of Rome might take advantage of this state of things

the senate sent an embassy to the plebeian camp beyond the Anio ; and we are told that Agrippa Menenius, the chief of the embassy, addressed the people in the following manner :—

“ In those times when all was not at unity as now, in man, but every member had its own plans and its own language, the other members became quite indignant that they should all toil and labour for the belly while it remained at its ease in the midst of them doing nothing but enjoying itself. They therefore agreed among themselves that the hands should not convey any food to the mouth, nor the mouth receive it, nor the teeth chew it. But while they thus thought to starve the belly out, they found themselves and the whole body reduced to the most deplorable state of feebleness, and they then saw that the belly is by no means useless, that it gives as well as receives nourishment, distributing to all parts of the body the means of life and health.”

Having uttered this fable, which was intended to show that in a state the rich are as necessary as the working classes, Menenius proceeded to treat, and a peace was concluded on the terms of all debts being forgiven and all who were in slavery for debt being set at liberty, and magistrates,

named Tribunes of the People, being appointed, who would have the power of giving protection to any who should be injured or oppressed. The people then offered sacrifices to Jupiter on the spot, which was thenceforth named the Sacred Mount, and returned to their dwellings in the city.

Coriolanus.

In the late war with the Volscians a gallant patrician had greatly distinguished himself, and he had been the chief means of taking the town of Corioli, whence he was named Coriolanus. He was very proud and haughty, and a great enemy to the plebeians.

It happened soon after that Rome was visited with a grievous famine. Agents were sent in all quarters, even as far as the island of Sicily, to purchase corn, and a large quantity arrived from that island, partly purchased, partly the gift of a prince who reigned there. It was proposed in the senate to distribute this gift-corn among the people without payment, and to sell the remainder to them at a low price. But Coriolanus said no, this was the time to make them do away with the tribunes, and advised not to give them the corn on any other terms. When the tribunes heard of

this proposal, they accused him as an enemy of the people ; and as he knew that he was sure to be condemned, he quitted Rome and went into exile.

The place which he selected for his abode was Antium, one of the chief cities of the Volscians. He lived in the house of Tullius, the king of the place, and he offered his services against his country. But there was at that time peace between the Romans and the Volscians, and it did not appear easy to make the latter people break it. Tullius had, therefore, recourse to stratagem, and he took advantage of the following occasion.

There used at certain seasons to be celebrated at Rome, in honour of the gods, what were called the Great Games, consisting of chariot-races and other exercises. They were to be now repeated ; for when they had last taken place, and, as was the custom, the images of the gods were carried round the Circus in which they were to be performed, to sanctify it, a slave, whom his master had condemned to death, was driven across it and scourged. No notice was taken of this circumstance, and the games went on as usual ; but soon after the city was visited by a pestilence, and various prodigies occurred. The soothsayers could tell neither the cause nor the remedy ; at length

Jupiter appeared in a dream to a countryman named Latinus, and directed him to go to the consuls and tell them that the prelude to the games (meaning the slave) had been displeasing to him. Latinus, fearing that he should be only laughed at, did not venture to go near the consuls. A few days after his son died suddenly, and the vision again appeared to him, and menaced him with a greater evil if he delayed going to the consuls. But he still hesitated, and he then lost the use of his limbs. He at length made the matter known to his kinsmen and friends, and they agreed that it were best to carry him in his bed to the Forum. The consuls when he came directed him to be brought into the senate-house, and he there told his wonderful tale, and scarcely had he completed it when another miracle took place, for he all at once recovered the use of his limbs, and walked out of the senate-house.

The games were now renewed with great splendour, and Tullius took advantage of the resort of people to them to kindle a war. He went secretly to the consuls, and told them that he was apprehensive lest his countrymen who were come in great numbers to the festival, should commit some acts of violence. The senate, in consequence,

issued a hasty order for all Volscians to quit the city by sunset. They departed in great anger, and Tullius, who had gone before, met them on the way, and excited them to vengeance for the insult.

War was now declared by the Volscians, and Tullius and Coriolanus were appointed to command their armies. Coriolanus was everywhere successful; he took a number of towns, and at length pitched his camp within five miles of Rome. No one thought of resisting him; a decree was passed for restoring him to all his former rights and honours, and five senators bore it to his camp. But he insisted that the lands taken from the Volscians should also be restored. He gave them thirty days to consider, and meantime led off his troops. When he returned, the principal senators waited on him, and he gave three days more. Next day the priests entered his camp in their sacred habits, and tried but in vain to move him. The third day came, and his army was expecting to be led against Rome, when a long procession of Roman ladies were seen approaching. It was headed by the exile's venerable mother and his wife leading her two children. It entered the Volscian camp and advanced to the tent of the general. Coriolanus received them with respect;

the tears of his wife and the other ladies melted his haughty soul; he shuddered at the menaced curse of his aged parent; he burst into tears. "Mother," cried he, "thou hast chosen between Rome and thy son; me thou wilt never see more; may they requite thee!" He embraced his wife and children, and then dismissed them, and on the following day he led off his army. He passed the remainder of his life among the Volscians, and when he died the women of Rome mourned for him as they had done for Brutus.

Fall of the Fabii.

The Romans had long been at war with the people of Veii, a city of Etruria, only twelve miles distant from Rome. As they did great mischief by their incursions into the Roman territory, it was thought expedient to make a settlement in their own territory, and the family of the Fabii, one of the noblest, most ancient and most numerous in Rome, engaged to establish it. They left Rome to the number of three hundred and six, followed by about four thousand of their friends and clients, and they built a fort on the banks of a stream named the Crémera, whence they used to issue in arms and plunder the lands, and carry

off the cattle of the Veientes. At length the Veientes had recourse to a stratagem in order to free themselves from them. They placed their troops in ambush in the wooded hills which surrounded a small plain, toward which they caused herds of cattle to be driven in view of the fortress. The Fabii instantly sallied forth; and while they were dispersed in pursuit of the cattle, the Tuscans came down from the hills and surrounded them. They defended themselves vigorously, and succeeded in breaking through and gaining the summit of a hill; but they were there again surrounded, and all of them were slain. Of the whole Fabian family there remained only one alive, a child, who had been left at Rome on account of his tender years.

Cincinnátus.

Some years after, the Romans were at war with the people named the Æquians. A peace was made, but the Æquians broke it, and began to ravage the lands of the Latins, who were the allies of the Romans. Ambassadors were sent to the Æquian camp to complain of this breach of faith. The Æquian general was sitting under the shade of a spreading oak, and he insolently desired them

to make their complaint to the tree. The Romans then took the oak and the gods to witness the justice of their cause and departed, and a Roman army was soon in the field against the Æquians. But fortune favoured the guilty side, for the Roman army was shut up in its camp by the enemy, and a rampart raised all round it. Ere the rampart, however, was completed, five of the horsemen made their escape and carried the tidings to Rome.

It was the custom of the Romans, on occasions of imminent danger, to create a dictator, as the power of that officer was unlimited. The choice of the senate now fell on Cincinnátus, one of the most distinguished of their body, but who was so poor that he was living on a little farm of four acres beyond the Tiber, which he cultivated with his own hands. The officers sent to inform him of his appointment found him guiding his plough, with nothing on him but an apron, it being summer-time. They bade him dress himself to hear the message of the senate. He called to his wife to fetch him his *toga*,—so the Romans called the white mantle or rather shawl which formed their outer garment. She came with it out of their little cottage; he put it on, and the officers then

saluted him as dictator. A boat lay ready to convey him over the river; at the other side he was met by his sons and his other kinsmen and friends, and he was conducted by them to his abode.

He entered the Forum before dawn the next morning, and directed the shops to be closed and all business to be suspended; he then ordered all those who were of the age for military service to be ready by sunset, each with twelve palisades and a supply of provisions for five days. At night-fall all were ready, and the dictator placing himself at their head, they set out, and at midnight they halted near the camp of the enemy. The dictator rode forward to take a view of it, directing his officers to make their men leave their baggage where they were, and to march on with only their arms and the palisades, and when they reached the enemy's camp to set up a shout and commence forming a ditch and rampart round it. His orders were obeyed; a loud shout arose, which, pealing over the Æquian camp, reached the ears of the Romans, and assured them that deliverance was at hand. The besieged then burst forth and engaged and fought with the Æquians till the dawn. In the meantime the dictator's army had com-

pleted their work, and the Æquians, finding themselves thus enclosed and assailed from both within and without, sued for mercy. The only terms the dictator would grant were the surrender of their general and his principal officers, and of one of their towns, with all their property in it, and the passage of their whole army under the yoke. These hard terms were agreed to. The yoke was set up (it was formed of two spears set in the ground and another laid across like a doorway), and the whole Æquian army, each man wearing only a single garment, went through it and then departed. Their camp and all that it contained became the prize of the Romans. The dictator then led home his army. He entered the city in triumph; as the soldiers passed along, they found tables spread with provisions before the doors of all the houses, and joy and festivity everywhere prevailed. The dictator then laid down his office, and returned to the cultivation of his little farm.

Spurius Mælius.

Some years after, Cincinnatus, when eighty years of age, was again created dictator on a very different occasion. Rome happened to be visited by one of those dreadful famines to which she was

very subject, and it was so severe that great numbers of the common people threw themselves into the river. The government did all in their power to procure corn, but they were only able to obtain it in small quantities. A wealthy plebeian knight, named Spurius Mælius, however, succeeded in buying large quantities in Etruria, and he sold it at low prices, and in many cases gave it for nothing to the poor. As this gained him great favour with the people, the patricians became suspicious of him ; he was accused of designs against the government, and Cincinnatus was appointed dictator in order to crush him.

On the morning after his appointment the dictator entered the Forum and seated himself on his tribunal. He then ordered Ahala his master of the horse to go and summon Mælius to his presence. Mælius, knowing that he had little favour to expect, hesitated to obey ; the officers then advanced to seize him ; he snatched up a butcher's knife to defend himself, and ran back into the crowd ; but Ahala, sword in hand, and followed by a band of armed patrician youths, rushed after him and ran him through the body. The venerable dictator applauded the deed ; the house of Mælius was pulled down, and its site was left

desolate. But as soon as the dictator had resigned, the people prepared to take vengeance on Ahala, and he was obliged to go into exile.

The Decemvirs.—Sicinius.

The people at Rome had long been discontented with the state of the laws as being too much in favour of the patricians, and after a good deal of opposition it was agreed that a new code of laws should be framed. Deputies were sent to Greece, especially to Athens, to gain a knowledge of the laws and constitutions of that country, and on their return ten persons (thence named Decemvirs, that is ten men) were appointed to make laws for the Roman people. As was the practice in such cases in ancient times, they were entrusted with absolute power, and there were no other magistrates left in the state.

The Decemvirs made an excellent code, which was contained in ten tables or laws; but they said that these were not sufficient, and that two tables more were required to complete the code. Accordingly a new board of Decemvirs, containing some of the former members, was appointed. The two tables that were wanting were then framed, and the whole, under the name of the

Twelve Tables, became the foundation of the Roman law.

The Decemvirs should now have gone out of office, but they had tasted the sweets of power, and they were resolved not to resign it, and there was no legal mode of compelling them to lay down their authority. They never assembled the senate, and the senators having therefore little or nothing to do in the city, went and lived on their farms. The Decemvirs got round them a number of the young patricians as a kind of body-guard, and they tyrannized as they pleased over the people.

Fortunately for the Decemvirs, the enemies of Rome remained at peace, so that there was no occasion for arming the people. But at length the Sabines and Æquians renewed hostilities, and it was necessary to take arms against them. Two armies were accordingly raised, of which eight of the Decemvirs took the command, while their colleagues, Appius Claudius and Oppius, remained in charge of the city. Both armies, however, sooner than gain victories for the tyrannic Decemvirs, suffered themselves to be beaten.

In the army which went against the Sabines, there was a distinguished old soldier, named Sincinius Dentátus, who it is said had been present

in not less than one hundred and twenty battles, had the scars of forty-five wounds on his body, and had gained military honours and rewards without number. The Roman camp happening to be near the Sacred Mount, Sicinius took occasion to remind the soldiers of what their fathers had been, and how at that very place they had recovered their rights from the haughty patricians, and he urged them to follow that noble example. The generals, alarmed at his conduct, resolved to put him out of the way, and under the pretext of doing him honour, they sent him with a party to choose a place for encampment, giving secret orders to the soldiers to fall on him in some convenient place and slay him. Sicinius went unsuspecting no danger, but in a lonely spot his men suddenly assailed him. Placing his back against a rock, the veteran warrior defended himself manfully, and before he fell he had slain fifteen and wounded thirty of his cowardly assailants. The survivors ran back to the camp, crying that they had fallen into an ambush of the enemy, who had slain their leader, and several of their comrades. A party was then sent to bury the dead, but they could find no trace of an enemy; the body of Sicinius lay unspoiled in his armour; all the slain

men were Romans, and their bodies were all turned towards his, which proved that they must have fallen by his hand. It was therefore quite evident that he had perished by the treachery of the Decemvirs. The soldiers were highly enraged, but the generals gave Sicinius a splendid military funeral, which pacified them in some measure.

Story of Virginia.

But a far worse deed was done in the city. Appius, when sitting on his judgement-seat in the Forum, was in the habit of seeing a beautiful plebeian maiden going, attended by her nurse, to one of the schools which were held there. Her name was Virginia; she was the daughter of a plebeian of good family named Virginus, who was then serving as a captain in the army which was acting against the Æquians, and she was betrothed to Leilius, who had been a tribune. Appius conceived a passion for her; he tried the effect of promises and bribes, but to no effect; but he was resolved to stop at no mode of getting the beautiful victim into his power. Accordingly one of his followers, named Claudius, by his directions, seized her one day as she was crossing the Forum, asserting that she was his slave. At

the loud cries of Virginia's nurse a crowd assembled to oppose him ; but he said that as his claim was a legal one, there was no need to employ force, and all the parties went before Appius, who was sitting on his tribunal. Claudius, as had been concerted with the judge, then said that Virginia was the child of one of his female slaves, by whom she had been given to the wife of Virginus, who was barren, and that consequently she was his property. The friends of Virginia replied that it would be only reasonable to wait till Virginus could come from the camp, and that meantime, according to one of the Decemvir's own laws, security should be taken for the appearance of the maiden. Appius, however, pretending that his law did not apply to this case, decided that she should be delivered up to the claimant on his giving security to produce her when required. But such a cry of horror was raised at this iniquitous decree, and the people seemed so determined to prevent its execution, that Appius found it prudent to give way, and Virginia was delivered up to her friends.

It was the intention of Appius to send to his colleagues in the camp, directing them not to suffer Virginus to come to Rome, and to surround

himself next day with a strong body of his dependents, and carry his point by force if necessary. But while, to remove suspicion, he sat some time longer in court, Icilius and his friends took care to detain him by making delay in arranging the securities; and meantime they had directed two active young men to mount and ride off to the camp with all speed, and inform Virginius of what had occurred. They therefore arrived long before Appius' messenger; and Virginius, pretending the death of a relation, obtained leave of absence and came to Rome.

At daybreak next morning the Forum was filled with people; Virginius and his daughter came among them in the garb of mourners, and followed by a train of women. He implored their aid; Icilius supported his entreaties; the women wept in silence. Appius soon appeared at the head of an armed train. Claudius addressed him, gently reproaching him with not having done him justice the preceding day. Without listening to either party, Appius gave sentence in favour of the claimant, who advanced to lay hold on the maiden, but the women and their friends repelled him. Virginius then menaced the Decemvir for his injustice, but Appius declared that he knew there was a

conspiracy to resist the government, but that he would put it down by force. He then thundered out, "Go, officer, disperse the crowd, and make way for the master to take his slave." The people fell back: Virginius, seeing there was no hope from them, apologised for his vehemence, and asked permission to take his daughter and her nurse aside for a few minutes to examine them about the matter. Appius consented, and Virginius then drew them over to one of the butchers' shops which were round the Forum, and snatching up a knife and crying out, "I make you free, my child, in the only way in my power," plunged the knife into his daughter's bosom. Then, looking to the tribunal, he added, "With this blood, Appius, I devote thee and thy life to the gods below." Appius called out to seize him, but brandishing the reeking blade, he made his way to the gate and hastened to the camp.

Teilius meantime harangued the people over the corpse of Virginia; Appius, aided by the young patricians, attempted to seize him and put him into prison, but Valerius and Horatius, members of two of the noblest and most ancient families in Rome, appeared on the side of the people, and Appius was obliged to seek refuge in one of the

adjacent houses. His colleague Oppius called the senate together, but it would come to no decision. Some of the patricians then went off to the camp to try to keep the army in its duty ; but all their hopes were vain ; for when Virginius arrived and told his story, the soldiers plucked up their standards, and marching for the city, posted themselves on the Aventine. Deputies came from the senate, but they were told to send Valerius and Horatius if they wanted an answer. The army then resolved to go and occupy the Sacred Mount. They marched through the city unopposed, and encamped on that celebrated spot, the Runnymede of Roman History ; and they there were joined by the other army. Valerius and Horatius soon arrived as envoys from the senate ; and the people had such reliance on the justice and honour of these two worthy men, that they left to them the arrangement of the whole matter. It was agreed that the Decemvirs should lay down their office and account for their public conduct. The people then returned to the city.

Vengeance for Virginia was now to be exacted. Her father summoned Appius and Claudius, the agent of his meditated crime, to stand their trial before the people. Instead of seeking safety in

flight, the haughty Decemvir appeared as usual in the Forum surrounded by the patrician youth. Virginius, who was a tribune, ordered him to be seized and cast into prison ; he appealed to the other tribunes, but they would not interfere, and he was dragged away by the officers. He died in prison, by his own hand, before the day of trial came. The same was the fate of his colleague Oppius ; the other Decemvirs were suffered to go into exile, as also was Claudius, when he had been tried and found guilty. The tribunes then declared prosecution to be at an end ; and “ the spirit of Virginia,” says the historian, “ more happy in her death than in her life, having roamed through so many houses exacting vengeance, rested at length when no guilty person remained.”

Camillus, and the Taking of Veii.

The frequent wars with Veii had been the occasion of so much loss to the Romans, that it was finally resolved to make every effort to destroy that hostile city ; but as Veii was large, and well-supplied, and its walls were remarkably strong, it was plain that an army must be kept constantly on foot, and the war be carried on in the winter as well as the summer, for which purpose it would

be necessary to give pay to the troops, for hitherto the Roman soldiers got nothing for their services but what plunder they were able to gain. The patricians then came forward, and readily agreed to pay the needful taxes, and a large army took the field. The Veientes, however, were so strong themselves, and were so well aided by their neighbours, that they gave the Romans more than one defeat; and the war was in its tenth year, when the Romans, vexed at the misconduct and misfortunes of their generals, made Camillus, the most distinguished man of the time, dictator, and gave him the supreme command. He defeated the allies of the Veientes, and then encamped with a large army before their town.

It was now the dog-days, and the weather was hot and sultry; no rain had fallen for a long time, when suddenly, no one could tell how, the water of the lake on the side of the Alban Mount rose to such a height as to overflow. As it threatened to deluge the plain beneath, the Romans sent to consult the oracle of Delphi, in Greece, to know how the calamity might be averted. The Veientes (there being a truce at this time) learned this event, and one of their soothsayers mocked at the Romans, telling them that it was now plain, from

the Etruscan sacred books, that they never would take Veii. These words exciting suspicion, a Roman captain, a few days after, pretending that some prodigy had occurred in his house, the ill effects of which he wished to obviate in the proper manner, invited the soothsayer to meet him in the plain between the city and the camp. As he held out hopes of a good reward, the soothsayer was induced to give him the meeting, and the captain having contrived to draw him near the Roman lines, suddenly seized the old man, and being young and vigorous, easily dragged him into the camp. He was instantly sent to Rome, and by threats the senate obliged him to confess that the sacred books announced that as long as the lake kept overflowing, Veii would never be taken, and that if its waters reached the sea Rome would perish. The answer from Delphi was to the same effect; and it was then resolved to make a tunnel through the side of the mountain, and thus draw off the waters and disperse them over the adjoining lands.

While the Romans were engaged in making the tunnel for the Alban lake, Camillus employed his men in running a mine into the temple of Juno in Veii. Both works were completed about the same

time; and then Camillus, having vowed all kinds of honours to the gods, entered the mine at the head of a part of his troops, while the remainder of his army prepared for an attack on the city. The Veientine king was sacrificing in the temple, and the priest said aloud, that whoever offered the victim to the gods would be the victor. The Romans who were below in the mine heard him, and rushing forth, they seized the victim and offered it. They then ran down into the city and opened the gates to their comrades; and thus Veii, like Troy, was taken by stratagem after a ten years' siege.

The dictator had, after the manner of those times, promised to Queen Juno, the patron-goddess of Veii, a splendid temple at Rome; and it was now requisite to remove her statue thither; but as only a priest of a certain family was privileged to touch it, the Romans were dubious how to act, fearing lest they might offend the goddess. At length some of the knights took courage, and having bathed and put on white raiment, they entered the temple. They asked the goddess if she was willing to go to Rome; and it is said that her answer in the affirmative was distinctly heard, and that the statue moved of itself when they went to take it from its place. A stately temple

was built to receive it on the Aventine at Rome.

Acts of Camillus.—His Exile.

Camillus some time after laid siege to Falerii, the chief town of the Faliscans, who had been the allies of the Veientes. One day, during the siege, a schoolmaster, who had charge of the boys of some of the noblest families in the place, took them out of the town under pretence of exercise, and gradually drawing them near the Roman camp, at length brought them in, and delivering them up to Camillus, said he had now put Falerii into his hands. But the noble Roman, abhorring such treachery, ordered his hands to be tied behind his back, and then giving rods to the boys made them whip him into the town. This magnanimity quite overcame the Faliscans, and made them do what arms could not, for they at once surrendered to Camillus.

It was the custom at Rome for a general who had achieved any great conquest to enter the city in a stately chariot, preceded by the spoils and principal captives he had taken, and followed by his whole army singing and rejoicing. This was called a Triumph. Camillus of course triumphed for the conquest of Veii, but he did what had

never been done before, he yoked four white horses to his chariot, and as these had been considered to belong only to the chariots of Jupiter and the Sun, it was feared that the vengeance of the gods would fall on him. Camillus had also offended his soldiers, for he had vowed a tithe or tenth of the spoil of Veii to the god of Delphi; but he had neglected to remind his men of it when the city was taken, and they had now to refund after they had consumed and spent all their plunder. On the occasion of sending the tithe, it was resolved to make a golden bowl to the value of it, and deposit it in the temple of the god; but there was found not to be sufficient gold in the treasury for the purpose. The Roman ladies then came forward and proffered to lend the state all their golden ornaments. The offer was accepted, the bowl was made and sent to Delphi, and the ladies, for their patriotism, were honoured with the privilege of riding in carriages in the city.

Camillus was soon after accused of having secreted some of the plunder of Veii, and a part of it was actually found in his house. He therefore went into exile, and the people imposed a fine on him. It is said that as he was going out of Rome he turned round, and looking toward the Capitol,

prayed^d with uplifted hands to the gods that Rome might soon have cause to regret him.

CHAPTER IV.

Taking of Rome by the Gauls.

THE gods may be said to have heard the ruthless prayer of Camillus. He had not long been gone from the city when envoys came from the people of Clusium in Etruria, praying for aid against a terrible enemy, who had come, they said, from the ends of the earth and laid siege to ~~their~~ town.

This people were the Gauls, the inhabitants of the country now called Franco. They were then in a very barbarous state, and were unacquainted with the luxuries of the south, till, as we are told, a citizen of Clusium, whose wife had been seduced by a young nobleman, being refused all satisfaction by the nobility, resolved to try to induce the Gauls to enter Italy. He loaded mules with wine and oil, and with mats filled with dried figs, and crossed the Alps. The rude Gauls, to whom such delicacies were unknown, were eager to possess them; and when he told them that they might

easily make themselves masters of the country that produced them, the whole people arose, and with wives and children passed the Alps and the Apennines, and laid siege to Clusium.

The Romans sent three of the noble family of the Fabii as ambassadors to the Gauls, requiring them not to molest the allies of Rome; but the Gauls replied that they wanted land, and that the Clusians must divide theirs with them. Instead of returning home, the Fabii went into the town, and they even joined in a sally; and one of them having slain a Gaulish chief, was recognized as he was stripping him of his armour. Brennus, the Gaulish king, instantly ordered a retreat to be sounded, and he despatched some of his hugest warriors to Rome to demand satisfaction for this breach of the law of nations. The senate was inclined to surrender the Fabii to the Gauls, but the people would not consent. Brennus immediately directed his march for Rome; his troops on their way did no injury to the husbandmen; they passed the towns and villages as if they were friends; they crossed the Tiber, and on the banks of the Alia, about eleven miles from Rome, they encountered the Roman legions.

They would have found the Romans unpre-

pared, it is said, were it not, that one night, as a man was going along by the foot of the Palatine hill, he heard a voice, more than human, calling him by his name. He turned, but could see nothing ; he then again heard the voice desiring him to go in the morning and tell the magistrates that the Gauls were coming. He obeyed, and preparations were then made to meet the approaching foe.

On the 16th of July, a day rendered ominous by the defeat of the Fabii at the Cremera, the Roman army gave battle to the Gauls. Their best troops were placed on the left, close to the Tiber, the right wing was composed of new-raised men. Brennus fell on these last and speedily routed them ; he then brought his whole force against the left wing, which seeing itself so greatly outnumbered, broke and made for the river. The Gauls attacked them on all sides ; many were slain and drowned, the remainder fled to Veii. Those who had escaped on the right carried the news of the defeat to Rome, and before nightfall the Gaulish horse appeared on the field of Mars. But no attempt was made on the city, and the Gauls devoted the whole of the next day and night to rioting and drunkenness.

The Romans, seeing that it would not be possible for them to defend the city, resolved to abandon it. As the Capitoline hill was very steep, and would contain about a thousand men, they collected provisions for that number on it, who were to remain for its defence; all the rest departed to seek refuge where best they could hope to obtain it. A part of the sacred things were buried; the Vestals and some of the priests set out with the remainder for the town of Cære in Etruria. As they were ascending the Janiculan hill on the other side of the Tiber, a man, who was driving his wife and children in his cart, was shocked at seeing the holy virgins trudging on foot, and he made his family get down and give place to them; and he then conveyed them in safety to Cære.

But there were about eighty old patricians who had borne the highest offices in the state, and who would not survive that Rome which had been the scene of all their glory. They put on their robes of state, and they sat calmly awaiting their doom on their ivory chairs of office in the Forum. The Gauls, meantime, marking the stillness that prevailed in the city, were apprehensive of an ambush, but they at length broke open one of the

gates and entered. No one was to be seen ; silence reigned around ; they advanced till they reached the Forum ; on the Capitol above they beheld armed men ; beneath, in the Forum, sat the aged senators like beings of another world. They were filled with awe, and paused. At length one of the Gauls put forth his hand and stroked the long white beard of one of the senators. The indignant old man raised his ivory sceptre and smote him on the head ; the Gaul drew his sword and killed him, and all the rest were then slaughtered. The Gauls spread all over the city in search of plunder ; they set fire to it in various parts, and soon Rome was nothing but a heap of ruins. They made various attempts to force their way up the Capitol, but they were always repulsed with loss.

While the Gauls were thus masters of Rome, those who had fled to Veii had gained some successes against the Tuscans, who had taken advantage of their distress. As it was necessary to communicate with the consuls and the senate who were on the Capitol, a gallant youth one night swam down the river on corks, and eluding the Gallic sentinels, clambered up the side of the Capitol, and having received his instructions, returned by the way that he came. But next day

the Gauls took notice of a bush that had given way as he grasped it, and they also observed that the grass was trodden down in various places; they thence concluded that as some one had climbed up, they might be able to ascend it themselves. Accordingly, at midnight, a chosen party came to that place and began to ascend in dead silence. They advanced slowly and cautiously; no noise was made; the Romans, even the sentinels, were buried in sleep; the watchful dogs heard no sound and gave no alarm. The foremost Gaul had reached the summit, when some geese, that were kept at the temple of Juno as sacred to the Goddess, began to flutter and scream. The noise awoke a patrician named Manlius; he started up, ran out, and seeing the Gaul, pushed him down the hill. The Gaul falling on his comrades, threw them also down, and the project thus miscarried.

But the famine was now very great on the Capitol, and the men had been obliged to eat the leather of their shields and even the soles of their shoes. The Gauls, on their part, were anxious to go away, and it was agreed that they should depart on receiving one thousand pounds weight of gold; but when the gold was being weighed out,

Brennus used false weights: and when the Romans complained, he flung his sword into the scale, crying, "Woe to the vanquished!" But just then Camillus, who had been appointed dictator, entered the Forum at the head of his troops. He ordered the gold to be taken away; the Gauls pleaded the treaty; he replied that it was not valid, being made without the knowledge of the dictator; from words they came to blows, and a battle was fought on the ruins of Rome. The Gauls were routed with great slaughter; and in a second battle on the road to Gabii, the remainder of their army was cut to pieces, and Camillus led Brennus captive in his triumph.

Manlius Capitolinus.

The distress was very great at Rome in consequence of the destruction of the city, and the people had to incur considerable debts in order to rebuild their houses, replace their furniture and farming implements, and so forth. The old scenes of cruelty and oppression on the part of the wealthy creditors were renewed, the debtors were reduced to slavery at home or sold out of the country, and of their misery there seemed to be no end. One day, Manlius, the saviour of the

Capitol, as he was standing in the Forum, saw an officer who had been his fellow-soldier, led across it in chains by the usurer to whom he had been assigned as a slave for debt. His pity was excited; and being a man of generous feelings, he paid the debt on the spot, and restored him to liberty. He then sold an estate beyond the Tiber, the most valuable part of his property, and by lending money without interest, he saved nearly four hundred citizens from bondage.

The people resorted so much to the house of Manlius on the Capitol, that the senate became, or pretended to be, alarmed lest he should attempt to make himself king, and they caused him to be arrested and cast into prison. But the people, as was the custom in time of mourning, put on old and worn clothes and let their hair and beard grow neglected, and lingered day and night about the prison-door, and the senate, either alarmed, or having no real charge against him, set him at liberty. But soon after they induced two of the tribunes to impeach him before the assembly of the people for aiming at the regal power. His whole family, even his own two brothers, deserted him in his need, and did not, as was the usual custom, go about trying to interest the people in his favour. The place of

trial was the field of Mars. Manlius produced all those whom he had saved from bondage for debt, and those whose lives he had saved in battle; he displayed the arms of thirty foes whom he had slain, and forty rewards of valour bestowed on him by different generals; he bared his bosom covered with scars, and looking up to the Capitol implored the gods whose temples he had saved to aid him in his distress. The people were about to acquit him, but his enemies transferred the trial to a place on the other side of the city, where the Capitol was not visible, and he then was condemned, and he was flung down from the Tarpeian rock, one of the usual modes of executing state-criminals.

The Licinian Laws.

The patricians now oppressed the people more than ever; they kept the high offices of the state all to themselves, and they also held all the public land which had been acquired in war without paying any rent for it. Two stout tribunes of the people, named Licinius and Sextius, however, brought in laws, the object of which was to make the patricians consent to one of the consuls being a plebeian, to a limitation to five hundred acres of

the quantity of public land that any one should hold, and to a reduction of the debts then due.

The occasion of the introduction of these laws is said to have been as follows. One of the patrician family of the Fabii had two daughters, the elder of whom was married to a patrician, the younger to Licinius, who was a plebeian. As this last was one day paying a visit to her sister, she was startled by hearing a loud blow given at the outer door of the house by the licitor or officer of her sister's husband, who was one of the chief magistrates. Her sister smiled at her ignorance; she said nothing at the time, but the matter sank deep in her mind, and when next her father came to see her he marked her dejection, and insisted on knowing the cause. On learning that it proceeded from her sense of her inferiority to her sister, he reassured her, and he and Licinius immediately began to concert measures for opening a way for the plebeians to the higher offices of the state.

The patricians made every possible opposition to the Licinian laws. The contest lasted for five, or as some said ten years; Camillus was twice made dictator to prevent their being passed; but he found it in vain to struggle, and by his advice

the patricians at length gave way and the laws were passed. Sextius was made the first plebeian consul. It is remarkable, that some years after Licinius was prosecuted and fined for breaking his own law, and holding a double quantity of the public land.

Manlius Torquátus.

The Gauls continued to make plundering inroads into the Roman territory. On one of these occasions the following combat took place:—

There was in the Roman army an officer named Manlius, a young man of great courage. As he had an impediment in his speech, his father, who was a harsh, proud man, had kept him at his country-house away from the city, and set him to work on the land along with his common slaves. The father having been made dictator, acted with such undue severity, that one of the tribunes impeached him, when he laid down his office. Among the other charges made against him was his cruelty to his son, which coming to the ears of the young man, he armed himself with a knife, and early one morning he entered the city and went straight to the house of the tribune. He told his name, and was admitted into the room where the tribune

was ; he requested that all persons might be ordered to withdraw ; the tribune, thinking that he was come to give him some important information, complied with his request. Manlius then, drawing forth his knife, menaced him with instant death if he did not swear to drop the prosecution. The terrified tribune swore and the prosecution ended. When the fact came to the ears of the people, to reward the filial piety of Manlius they gave him a command in the army.

Manlius was now serving in the army which a dictator led to check the ravages of the Gauls. The two armies were posted opposite each other, with the river Anio between them, and one day a Gaul of huge stature advanced on the bridge and challenged any Roman to engage with him in single combat. Manlius was eager to accept the challenge ; but in the Roman discipline it was death for any officer or soldier to fight without the permission of his general, and some years before, the dictator, Postumius, had actually put his own son to death for breaking this rule. Manlius, therefore, went and asked leave of the dictator to engage the boastful Gaul. The leave was readily granted ; his comrades aided to arm him, and he advanced to meet the foeman. As

Manlius was but of the ordinary stature, the huge Gaul put out his tongue at him by way of derision. They then engaged; the Gaul with his great heavy broad sword made terrible cuts, which his active foe eluded, and then running in threw up the bottom of the Gaul's shield with his own, and getting inside of it, stabbed him again and again in the belly, till he fell on the ground like a mountain. Manlius took from the neck of the slain Gaul a golden collar which he wore, and he was thence named *Torquátus*, *torquis* signifying a collar in the Latin language.

Valerius Corvus.

On another occasion, when a Gaulish and a Roman army were lying opposite each other, another Gaul challenged any of the Romans to fight him. A young officer named Valerius accepted the challenge, with the permission of the consul. Just as the combat began, a crow, called in Latin *Corvus*, came and perched on the helmet of Valerius, whence he continually assailed with his beak and claws the face and eyes of the Gaul. Valerius being thus aided, gained an easy victory, and the crow then rose, and flying toward east was soon out of sight. Valerius was hence-

forth named Corvus, and he became one of the most distinguished men in Roman history.

Curtius.

One time a great gulf opened in the Forum at Rome. Every effort was made to fill it up, but to no purpose, and the soothsayers announced that it would never close till what was of most value in Rome was cast into it. While all were pondering on what this could mean, a gallant youth, named Curtius, came forward and demanded if Rome contained anything of more value than arms and valour. Then mounting his horse, which was splendidly caparisoned, and while all gazed in silence, he looked up to the Capitol and the temples of the gods, and solemnly devoted himself for the good of Rome. He gave his horse the spurs; one bound, and they both disappeared within the chasm; the people poured in fruits and other offerings, and the yawning abyss at length closed.

The first Samnite War.

The wars of the Romans had been hitherto chiefly with the Tuscans, who were their neighbours on the north, or with the Volscians or Æquians, who

dwelt to the south. They were now to engage a much more powerful enemy, namely, the Samnites, who inhabited the mountains in the interior of Italy, a hardy, warlike and courageous people, the contest with whom lasted for half a century.

The occasion of the war was an invasion of the country of Campania by the Samnites. The Campanians, a wealthy and luxurious people, unable to contend with these hardy mountaineers, applied to the Romans for aid; and the consul, Valerius Corvus (of whom we have already spoken), led the Roman legions into Campania for the first time. Valerius was encamped on the side of a hill named Mount Gaurus when the Samnites came to attack him. The battle was most desperate; for a long time neither party would yield; at length the Romans made one tremendous effort, and the Samnites broke and fled. To those who asked them the cause of their flight, they declared that the eyes of the Romans had seemed to be on fire, and that their gestures were those of madmen, so that there was no standing before them.

The other Roman consul had led his troops over the mountains into the Samnite country. The Roman army having crossed a woody moun-

tain, were just getting down into the valley, when on looking back they saw the Samnites in the woods, and moving to occupy the road behind them, so as to cut off their retreat. As it was probable that the road before them also was occupied, the consul was in great perplexity how to act. One of his officers, named Decius, then proposed that he would himself with a select body of men seize an eminence by which the Samnites had to pass, and there keep them in check till the army should have time to retrace its steps and get over the mountain. His plan was adopted, and it succeeded. The Samnites were unable to dislodge Decius all through the day, and when night came they remained about the hill not to let him escape. Wearied, however, with their exertions, they went to sleep, and Decius then quietly leading down his men, passed through them with as little noise as possible. The Romans had nearly got off, when one of them happening to strike against a shield, the sound awoke the Samnites. The alarm was given, and the Romans then drawing their swords fell on all that came in their way, and finally got away without any loss. When they reached their own camp they remained outside till dawn. Their arrival

being then made known to the consul, he was proceeding to bestow his well-merited praises on their leader ; but Decius said that now was the time to fall on the Samnites and rout them. The troops were instantly led out, and the enemies, taken by surprise, were routed with great slaughter. The consul gave Decius a golden crown and one hundred oxen, and to each of his men he gave an ox and two garments, while each of their companions presented them with a pound of corn and a pint of wine. The army also wove a crown of grass for Decius, such being the reward to which those who delivered Roman citizens from peril were entitled.

The Latin War.

Peace and an alliance were, however, soon made with the Samnites ; for the Romans saw that they would have to measure their strength with their old friends, the Latins. •

This people had from the time of the kings been in alliance with the Romans, and had shared in almost all their wars and victories. They had hitherto got half of the booty that had been made ; but they now thought that, as they were the more numerous people of the two, they had a right to

a share of honours and of political power, and some of their principal men came to Rome, where the senate gave them audience on the Capitol. They required that one of the consuls and one half of the senate should be Latins, but agreed that Rome should be the seat of government, and Romans the name of the united nation. Nothing could be more reasonable than their demands; but the senate pretended to be quite astonished at such presumption, and Manlius Torquatus, who was then consul, vowed that if they consented to be thus dictated to, he would come girt with his sword into the senate-house and slay the first Latin he saw there. When the gods were appealed to, it is said that Annius, one of the Latin deputies, spoke with contempt of the Roman Jupiter, and that loud claps of thunder and a storm of wind and rain instantly told the wrath of the deity; and that as Annius went to descend the flight of steps leading from the temple to the area before it, he tumbled down them and lay lifeless at the bottom.

War resulted between the Romans and the Latins. The colleague of Manlius in the consulship was Decius, who had saved the army in Samnium, and the two consuls led their troops into Cam-

pania, where the Latins then were. Each of them, it is said, had a dream of the same import; the form of a man of more than human size appeared to each, announcing that the general on one side, the army on the other, was due to Earth and to the gods of the under-world, and that therefore victory would be with that nation whose general would devote himself for his country. The consuls then agreed between themselves that he of them whose forces first began to yield should devote himself for Rome.

As the Romans and Latins had so long served together, and the officers and men were therefore acquainted with each other, the consuls deemed it advisable to maintain very strict discipline, and they forbade, on pain of death, any single combats with the enemy. One day, the son of the consul Manlius, who commanded a troop of horse, happened to come near where the horsemen of the Latin town of Tusculum were posted, and their commander, who was acquainted with young Manlius, challenged him to a single combat. Shame prevented Manlius from declining it; they ran against each other, and the Tusculan fell dead to the earth. The victor returned to the Roman camp, bearing the bloody spoils, and presented

himself with them to his father. The consul said nothing, but summoned an assembly of the army, and when the soldiers stood around his tribunal he sternly rebuked his son for his breach of discipline, and then ordered the lictor to bind him to the stake and strike off his head. The cruel order was executed, while the assembly stood mute with horror. But when they beheld the blood gush forth and the most gallant of the Roman youth no more, they broke out into loud lamentations, mingled with bitter curses on the ruthless sire; and taking up the body of the slain, they covered it with the spoils he had won, and buried it without the camp.

The decisive battle was fought at the foot of Mount Vesuvius, which, though now a volcano sending forth smoke and fire, was at that time verdant and smiling, clothed with vines and various shrubs and plants. When the consuls, according to the custom, offered victims in sacrifice, the signs in the entrails from which the soothsayers learned the future event, were unfavourable in those offered by Decius; but when he heard that his colleague had better success, he declared himself well-content. In the engagement, the wing led by Decius was beginning to give way; he then

saw that his hour was come, and calling to him the chief priest he repeated after him the form of self-devotion, being clad in his consular robe, with his head covered, his hand on his chin, and standing on a naked sword. Then girding his robe tightly about him, and mounting his horse, he rushed into the midst of the squadrons of the enemy. He seemed a spirit of destruction sent from heaven; wherever he went he carried with him dismay and death, till at length he fell covered with wounds. This noble act of self-devotion gave courage to the Romans and caused the spirit of the Latins to sink, and the day closed on the complete victory of the consul Manlius, three-fourths of the Latin army being destroyed. Next day the body of the consul Decius was sought for, and it was found amidst heaps of the slain. It then was buried with great solemnity and magnificence. The Latins were soon after completely conquered, and they became a part of the Roman people.

*Second Samnite War.—The Dictator Papirius
and his Master of the Horse.*

The object of the Romans in making peace with the Samnites, had been to avoid having two

powerful enemies on their hands together, and even to get them to join in crushing the Latins; but it had been by no means their intention to leave the Samnites or any other people in the enjoyment of independence. An occasion for a quarrel therefore was soon found, and an army under the dictator Papirius entered Sannium. Papirius shortly after, having occasion to return to Rome, when leaving the camp, gave strict orders to Fabius, his master of the horse, who remained in command, not to hazard an engagement on any account. Fabius, however, covetous of glory, took no heed of the dictator's words, but seized the first occasion for fighting that offered, and gained a complete victory. The dictator, when he heard of it, hastened to the camp breathing fury, and ascending his tribunal, summoned the master of the horse before him. Fabius besought the soldiers to protect him, and then appeared before the stern dictator, who having charged him with his breach of duty, ordered the lictors to strip him for death. Fabius broke from them and sought refuge among the soldiers; those nearest the dictator's tribunal implored, the more distant menaced him; his officers besought him, but in vain, to defer his judgement till the

morrow. Night at length terminated the contest.

During the night Fabius fled to Rome, and by his father's advice appealed to the senate against the dictator ; but while he was speaking, Papirius, who had followed him with all speed from the camp, arrived and ordered his lictors to seize him. The senate interceded, but he would not listen ; the elder Fabius then appealed to the people, before whom he enlarged on the cruelty of the dictator. Every heart sympathised with him ; but when Papirius spoke, and dwelt on the necessity of maintaining the military discipline, to which Rome owed her greatness, all were silent from conviction. At length the people and their tribunes united with Fabius and the senate in supplicating the clemency of the dictator, who deeming his authority sufficiently vindicated, granted life to his master of the horse.

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The Caudine Forks.

Some time after, a Roman army, led by the two consuls, entered Samnium. They advanced without caution, and near a town named Caudium they came to a pass between two wooded mountains named the Caudine Forks. It was a valley,

which was entered at one end by a narrow passage, while a way over the mountain, which closed it in, led out of it at the other end. The consuls advanced into this dangerous place without any of the usual precautions, and went on, till, on coming to the further end, they found the passage blocked up with rocks and with trunks of trees, and on looking round, beheld the hills occupied by armed Samnites; they also saw that the way by which they had entered had been seized by the enemy. As they could neither advance nor retreat, they formed their camp in the valley. The Samnites, trusting to the sure effects of hunger, made no attack; and when the food of the Romans was all spent, they sent to learn the will of Pontius the Samnite general. Pontius sent to Caudium to fetch his father, a man of venerable age and renowned for his wisdom, who dwelt in that town; and the old man was conveyed in a wain to the camp in order to give his advice. His counsel was, that they should either let the Romans go free and uninjured, or destroy their whole army. Pontius, however, preferred a middle course, and the old man retired shedding tears at the thoughts of the misery it would bring on his country. Pontius agreed to dismiss the

Roman army on their passing under the yoke with only one garment on ; their arms, clothes, and all that their camp contained, becoming the prize of the victor. To these terms they were obliged to submit. Officers and men marched one after the other between the two upright spears, and Pontius generously gave them beasts of burden to carry the sick and wounded, and sufficient provisions for their journey to Rome.

When the army reached the gates of Rome it dispersed ; the men who lived in the country went away, those who dwelt in the city slunk in the night to their homes. The consuls laid down their office, and their successors were appointed.

The senate was then called together to consider of the late treaty. Postumius, one of the consuls who had made it, was the first called on to give his opinion. He advised that it should not be kept, but that himself and all concerned in making it should be delivered up to the Samnites and the war be renewed ; and though there was hardly a senator who had not a son or some other relation whose life or liberty would not be thereby endangered, it was resolved to follow his advice. Postumius and the others were then led bound to Caudium, and delivered up to Pontius. When the

surrender had been made in the usual form, Postumius struck the Roman officer with his knee, crying, "I am now a Samnite, and I thus violate the law of nations; you may now with right on your side resume the war."

Pontius replied with dignity; he treated this action of Postumius as a childish artifice; he told the Romans, that if they wished to act with any show of justice, they should place their army again in the situation from which it had been relieved by the treaty; and he concluded by saying that he would not accept the surrender or let them thus hope to avert the anger of the gods. He then ordered Postumius and the other Romans to be unbound and set at liberty.

The war was then renewed, but though the Samnites gained some advantages, success was mostly with the Romans. At length the Tuscans, fearing that the latter people might become too powerful, resolved to remain no longer idle spectators, and a Tuscan army laid siege to the frontier town of Sutrium.

Fabius Maximus.

A Roman army hastened to its relief under the cōsul Fabius Maximus, whom we have seen

master of the horse to Papirius. Fabius, finding the Tuscan army numerous and strongly posted, deemed it the better course to create a diversion by invading Etruria, a country into which the Roman arms had not yet penetrated. Beyond Sutrium there lay a woody range of hills named the Ciminian Wood, which formed the boundary between the Romans and the Tuscans; through this tract, hitherto only trodden by solitary wayfarers, Fabius resolved to lead his army. At nightfall he sent on the baggage; the infantry followed, and at day-light Fabius, putting himself at the head of his cavalry, rode up to the camp of the Tuscans to occupy their attention. Toward evening he returned to his camp, and leaving it by another quarter, he came up with his infantry before night. They marched all through the night, and at day-break they reached the top of the mountain, whence they beheld the fertile plains of Etruria stretching out before them, filled with corn and with flocks and herds. They hastened to seize the offered prey; the Tuscan nobles collected their tenants to oppose them, but they could not stand against the Roman legions. Two Etruscan armies were defeated in various places, and the Romans spread their ravages over the whole country.

Meantime Marcius, the other Roman consul, had been defeated in Samnium, and the enemy had cut off all communication between him and Rome. It was therefore deemed necessary to appoint a dictator ; but the consul was the only person who could nominate him, and no one could reach Marcius, while Fabius was the enemy of Papirius, who was the person judged most fit for the office. It was resolved, however, to make trial of Fabius, and some of the principal senators repaired to his camp and entreated him to sacrifice his private feelings for the good of his country. He listened to them in silence, his eyes fixed on the ground, and they retired in uncertainty. In the dead of the night he arose, and, as was the custom, going out into the open air he named Papirius. In the morning he again heard in silence the thanks and praises of the senators.

• *Battle of Sentinum.*

A great league was formed against Rome by the Samnites, the Tuscans and the Gauls, who now possessed all the north of Italy. Fabius Maximus was appointed consul, and he insisted that Decius (the son of him who devoted himself at Vesuvius), who had often been his colleague

before, should now be joined in office with him. The people complied with his desire, and the two consuls put themselves at the head of their legions. They met the army of the confederates at a place named Sentinum. When the two armies were drawn out in line of battle, a wolf happened to chase a hind down from the mountains ; the two animals ran between the armies, and the hind seeking refuge among the Gauls, was killed by them, while the Romans made a free passage for the wolf, who ran on their side. As the wolf was the sacred beast of Mars, the father of Romulus, they regarded his appearance as an omen of victory ; while they deemed that the Gauls, who had slain the sacred animal of Diana, would feel the vengeance of that goddess.

During the battle, the numerous Gallic cavalry was twice forced to give way before the furious charges of the consul Decius ; but when he made a third charge, the Gauls sent forward their war-chariots, and the Roman horsemen, filled with dismay and confusion by these vehicles, whose effects they had never experienced before, fled back among the infantry. Decius, who had resolved to devote himself like his father, now saw that the time was come, and he called to him the

chief priest, and having performed the usual ceremonies, mounted his horse and plunged into the thick of the foe, where he soon fell covered with wounds. The Romans then redoubled their efforts, and they finally gained a complete victory.

End of the Samnite War.

The Samnites, not disheartened by their losses, resolved to make one desperate effort for their independence, and their leaders called to their aid the terrors of religion. A tabernacle two hundred feet square, and covered with linen, was erected in the midst of their camp, within which a venerable old man offered sacrifice after the manner prescribed in an ancient book formed of linen. The general then ordered the men of highest rank in the army to be called in one by one. Each as he entered beheld, through the gloom of the tabernacle, the altar in the centre, the bodies of the victims lying about it, and men with drawn swords standing around. He was then required to swear (invoking curses on himself and his family if he failed) that he would obey the general in all things, that he would not fly himself, and that he would slay any one whom he saw flying. Some of the first called in having refused to take

the oath were instantly put to death, and their bodies, lying among those of the victims, served as a warning to others. The general selected ten of those who had sworn, each of whom was directed to choose a man, who again chose in his turn, till the number of sixteen thousand was completed. This body was named from the Tabernacle, the Linen Legion ; the men composing it had arms of superior quality, and crested helmets were given them by way of distinction.

The Roman army was led by the consuls Carvilius and Papirius, the son of the celebrated dictator. They divided their forces, and while Carvilius besieged one of the strongholds of the Samnites, Papirius advanced to engage their army. It was the custom of the Romans to carry with their armies some sacred chickens in a coop, and before a battle they used to scatter corn before the coop and let out the fowl ; if they ran at the corn and hastily devoured it, it was esteemed an omen of victory ; if they neglected it, a defeat was judged to be at hand. On this occasion the ardour of the army was so thoroughly shared by the keepers of the sacred fowl, that one of them informed the consul that they had picked up the corn greedily, though the reverse was the case. Papirius, how-

ever, was told the real truth before the engagement commenced; but he said that the signs reported to *him* were favourable, and he only ordered that the keepers should be placed in the first rank, and when a chance javelin struck and killed the guilty one, he cried that the gods had shown their presence. Just then a crow was heard to give a loud cry; and this being esteemed a most favourable omen, he ordered the trumpets to sound and the war-cry to be raised.

The battle was won by a stratagem of the consul's. Before the action, he sent off Nautius, one of his lieutenants, with some light troops, and with all the baggage-mules and their drivers, directing him to approach during the battle, raising all the dust he could. Accordingly, in the heat of the engagement, both armies, to their surprise, saw a great cloud of dust approaching, through which gleamed arms and banners; for Nautius had made the drivers mount the mules, and taking large boughs in their hands, drag them along the ground. Both sides thought it was the army of Carvilius, and the courage of the Romans rose, while that of the Samnites fell, and the Romans at length gained a decisive victory.

The Samnites were soon after totally subdued.

Among those who were led in triumph, and then, after the barbarous practice of the Romans, put to death, was the noble Pontius, who had given a Roman army life and liberty at the Caudine Forks; but gratitude and clemency were not Roman virtues.

CHAPTER V.

War with Pyrrhus.

THE Romans having received some insults from the people of Tarentum, one of the cities founded by the Greeks on the coast of Italy, sent ambassadors to demand satisfaction. Audience was given them in the theatre, as was the custom of the Greeks: when they entered, the people burst out laughing at their dress, a robe of white edged with purple; and they laughed still more at the bad Greek spoken by Postumius, the chief of the embassy. As the Romans were leaving the theatre, a drunken buffoon came and dirtied the robe of Postumius in an abominable manner; at this the merriment became uproarious; but Postumius, holding up his robe, cried, "Ay, laugh,

laugh while ye may ; ye will weep long enough when ye have to wash this out in blood." He carried his robe just as it was to Rome, and displayed it before the senate, and it was at once resolved to declare war against the Tarentines.

It was the practice of the Tarentines, when they found themselves in difficulties, to apply to Greece for aid. There was now a very brave, able, and ambitious prince named Pyrrhus, the king of Epirus ; and they sent to invite him over to Italy, holding out great prospects of the dominion he might thus acquire. Pyrrhus was lured by their representations, and he soon after landed with a gallant army at Tarentum. The Roman consul, Lævinus, led an army against him ; the two armies were encamped on the opposite banks of a river, and Pyrrhus, who had the usual contempt of the Greeks for the Barbarians (as they called all but themselves), when he saw the Roman method of encamping, observed that they showed nothing of the barbarian in their tactics.

Pyrrhus had in his army a body of Thessalian cavalry, which was considered the best in the world ; and he also had twenty elephants, an animal which the Romans had never yet seen. By means of these he gained a victory, though

with great loss on his side ; and he was so astonished at the valour displayed by the Romans, that as he viewed their bodies on the field of battle, he cried, " Had I such soldiers the world would be mine, and the Romans would have it were I their king."

The specimen he had had of Roman valour made Pyrrhus anxious for peace, and he sent his friend Cincas, a distinguished orator, to Rome for that purpose. Cincas bore presents to the principal persons ; and he offered the release of all the prisoners without ransom if the Romans would only consent to leave the people of southern Italy free and independent. Though the gifts were refused, the terms seemed likely to be accepted, when Appius Claudius, a man of great influence, but who, in consequence of blindness, had long abstained from public business, caused himself to be conveyed to the senate-house, where he spoke in such strong and indignant terms, that all thoughts of peace were abandoned, and Cincas was ordered to quit Rome. On his return to Pyrrhus, he told him that Rome was a temple, and the senate an assembly of kings.

Pyrrhus retired to Tarentum for the winter, and he there was waited on by Roman ambas-

sadors to treat of the ransom of the prisoners. Among these was Fabricius, a man who, though he had borne the highest honours of the state, was content to live in honourable poverty. Pyrrhus, aware of his circumstances, which he had learned from Cineas, tried to induce him to accept a present in gold, which, however, Fabricius steadily declined. Next day, as they were conversing, a curtain behind them was suddenly drawn up, and an elephant, which had been placed there by the king's order, stretched his trunk out over them, and gave a loud roar. Fabricius, who had never before seen one of these huge animals, was no ways daunted. He merely stepped aside, and said with a smile, "Your gold did not move me yesterday, nor your beast to-day." Though Pyrrhus would not agree to the terms proposed by the Roman envoys, he gave all his prisoners leave to go home to keep the Saturnalia (the Roman Christmas holidays), on their promise of returning when they were over if they could not induce the senate to agree to his terms of peace. To their credit, when their efforts proved unavailing, they came back, without an exception, to captivity.

A battle was fought the next year, which terminated to the advantage of Pyrrhus, but with so-

much loss on his part, that he said, when the battle was over, to one who congratulated him on his victory, "One such victory more, and I am undone." He returned to Tarentum; and while he was there, Fabricius (who was now consul) and his colleague sent to inform him that his physician had come secretly to them, offering, for a reward, to poison him, but that they abhorred such treachery. Pyrrhus immediately despatched Cineas to Rome with proposals of peace, and with rich presents for the principal persons; he also gave clothes and gifts to all his prisoners, and sent them home with Cineas. The presents which he brought were refused as before; the friendship of the Romans, it was replied, was to be had without gifts if the king would depart out of Italy. The prisoners of Pyrrhus' allies were released in exchange for those he had sent home, and a truce was made at his desire.

Pyrrhus having been invited to Sicily to deliver it from the dominion of the Carthaginians, passed over to that island, where he remained for more than two years. He then returned to Italy, where he fought a battle with the Roman consul Curius, in which he was totally defeated, in consequence of the Romans shooting burning arrows at his

elephants, which drove those creatures mad with pain, and made them rush furiously into the ranks of the infantry and trample down the men. Pyrrhus then left Italy, and returned to Epirus.

Fabricius and Curius.

Fabricius and Curius are two names which are always held forth as examples of blameless, honourable and contented poverty. We have just related two anecdotes of the former, to which we will add the following.

When the Samnites had been conquered, they considered Fabricius as their friend and protector; and knowing his poverty, they sent him one time a sum of money, in order, as they said, that he might furnish his house better and provide all other things more suitable to his dignity. He said nothing, but passed his hand over his ears, eyes, nose, mouth, and stomach, and then at length replied, that as long as he commanded those members which he had touched he should never be in want of anything, and that therefore he would not take the money for which he had no need, from those whom he knew to be in want of it.

The same Fabricius, when he held the office of censor or inspector of morals, put a man of high

rank, who had been both consul and dictator, out of the senate, because he had in his house ten pounds weight of silver plate.

Curius having gained a victory over the Samnites when consul, that people sent to him to sue for peace. Their envoys found him sitting at his own hearth, eating for his supper roasted turnips out of a wooden dish. When they went home and told their countrymen how the Roman consul lived, they judged that he must be either very poor or very avaricious, and they resolved to tempt him with a large quantity of gold; but to those who brought it he replied with a smile, "Did you not perceive, by my supper yesterday evening, that I was in no want of money? Go back, and tell your people that I would rather command those who have gold than possess it myself."

When, in consequence of the great quantity of land that had been gained, the senate was in the usual manner making allotments of seven acres a-piece out of it to the people, it was voted to give Curius, on account of his merits, fifty acres, and a house in Campania; but he refused them, saying, that he was a bad citizen who was not content with the same share as others, and he was

quite satisfied with a farm of seven acres in the Sabine country.

First Punic War.—Origin of Carthage.

The wars of the Romans had been hitherto confined to Italy; we shall now see them crossing the sea and contending with a new enemy.

On the coast of Africa opposite Italy, stood a great and wealthy city named Carthage. It had been founded by a colony from the celebrated city of Tyre, in Phœnicia, led by Dido, the sister of the Tyrian king: for this king, who was cruel and avaricious, having murdered Dido's husband to get his wealth, that princess, thinking her life no longer secure, placed herself at the head of those who were weary of her brother's tyranny, and set out in quest of new settlements. They landed on the coast of Africa, where Dido requested of the rude simple natives to sell her as much land as she could cover with an ox-hide. To this, seemingly so moderate a demand, they readily assented; but the crafty Dido cut the hide up into thongs, and thus contrived to enclose a piece of ground of some magnitude, on which she built her factory, as we may term it. Carthago, for so she named it, grew rapidly in extent and power; it spread its do-

minion over a great part of Africa, and it carried on a large and lucrative trade with various parts, such as Spain and Sicily. It was on account of their settlements and conquests in this last island that the Carthaginians became involved in war with the Romans. The wars between them are called Punic, because the Romans termed the Carthaginians Pœni, on account of their Phœnician origin.

Origin of the War.

The following was the first occasion of war. A Sicilian prince had in his pay a body of Italian soldiers: after his death they were disbanded, and they set out on their return to Italy; but on their way they surprised the town of Messina, where they massacred the men, and divided the women, children and property among themselves. Being hard pressed by the Sicilians, who sought to punish them for their treachery, they looked abroad for aid; and while part of them applied to Hanno, a Carthaginian admiral, and put the citadel into his hands, others sent off to Rome imploring assistance on account of their Italian blood.

The senate at Rome was in great perplexity, for they had lately most severely punished one of their own legions for the very crime of which

these men had been guilty; at the same time they wished to prevent the Carthaginians from getting Messína into their hands. Unable to come to a decision, they left the whole matter to the people, who as usual, little troubled by scruples about justice or honour, voted at once that the required aid should be given.

First Naval Victory of the Romans.

The Romans had as yet never crossed the sea, and their navy was very insignificant; it was therefore no easy matter for them to get their troops over to Sicily. As the strait, however, between it and Italy is narrow, the consul managed, by taking advantage of the night, to put his legions across; and he then defeated the Carthaginians, and the Romans soon became masters of a great part of the island. But they could not venture to meet their rivals on the sea, and the Carthaginians therefore ravaged the coast of Italy at their pleasure.

The Romans, who were never daunted by difficulties, were resolved to have a fleet; but unless they could build ships of equal size with those of the enemy, they had little chance of success, and for this they had no model. Fortune here,

however, stood their friend as usual; a Carthaginian ship of war happened to be cast away on the coast of Italy, and with this for a model, in the space of sixty days from the time that the timber for them was cut, they had a fleet of one hundred and thirty ships afloat. As the ancient ships of war were what are called galleys, that is vessels impelled by oars, the Romans caused those whom they intended for rowers to practise their art seated on benches erected on the land, while the ships were in preparation; and by the time they were completed, the rowers were able to handle their oars with some dexterity. Still, aware of their own inferiority as sailors, they deemed some other expedient needful, and they devised a grappling engine of the following kind. In the fore part of each ship they set up a mast four-and-twenty feet high, with a pulley wheel at its top. They then made what may be called a ladder, six-and-thirty feet long and four broad, which had a hole at about a third of its length, through which the mast passed; at its further extremity was an iron ring, from which a rope went through the pulley at the top of the mast, by which the ladder might be raised or lowered. The ladder had also at its end a long iron spike, and it was boarded

on each side to the height of a man's knee. This machine was called a *corvus*, or crow, and it was to be used in the following manner. When one of the Roman ships got close to one of the enemy's, she was to let her crow fall on the enemy's deck, which the spike would enter, and thus hold her fast. The Roman soldiers then, holding their shields before or beside them, and having their legs protected by the side-boards of the ladder, would pass along it, and thus board the enemy's ship.

When all was prepared, the consul Duillius put to sea. The Carthaginians were at first surprised by the uncouth appearance which the Roman ships presented with their odd-looking crows; but they did not hesitate, notwithstanding, to attack them. The result was, however, quite contrary to their expectation, for every ship that the crows caught was taken, and they were finally defeated with great loss. This first naval victory caused immense joy at Rome; the consul Duillius triumphed for it, and he was permitted for the rest of his life to have a torch-bearer and a flute-player to go before him at night when he was returning home from supper anywhere.

Invasion of Africa.

The Romans now resolved, instead of confining the contest to Sicily, to invade Africa and attack Carthage itself. They therefore assembled a large fleet, carrying forty thousand soldiers beside the sailors and rowers, and it set sail for Africa in four squadrons under the command of the consuls, Régulus and Manlius, in the following order. The two ships of the consul sailed side by side; each was followed by a squadron sailing in a single line, each ship keeping further out to sea than the one before it, thus forming the two sides of a triangle; the ships of the third squadron sailing abreast, formed the base or remaining side of the triangle, and the fourth squadron brought up the rear, sailing in a line parallel to the third. A large Punic fleet attacked it on its passage, and destroyed four-and-twenty of the ships, but it was beaten off with considerable loss. The Romans found it necessary to return to Sicily to repair and to refresh their crews; and when they again put to sea the enemy did not venture to meet them, and the troops were landed at no great distance from Carthage.

The Carthaginians were, as we have already

observed, greatly devoted to trade; and where that is the case it will always be found that agriculture is carried to a high degree of perfection, and that the land in particular adjoining to the towns, where the wealthy merchants reside, is cultivated like a garden. So it is England and Holland; and so it was at Carthage. The whole country, from the place where the Romans landed to the capital, was one garden, full of corn, cattle, vines, figs, fruit of all kinds, and covered all over with the elegant country-seats of the opulent citizens of Carthage. In a few days the Romans, who thought only of plunder and devastation, had turned the whole of this lovely region into a desert, and the Carthaginians, having no regular troops, did not venture to defend their property.

Regulus in Africa.

The Roman senate sent out orders for the consul Manlius to return home with his army and the greater part of the shipping, and for Regulus to remain and continue the war in Africa. Regulus, it is said, prayed hard to be allowed to go home, as his little farm, his only property, was going to ruin on account of his absence, the person whom

he had to cultivate it having run away ; but the senate replied that the government would bear the expense of its cultivation, and, moreover, support his family while he was away on the service of the state. Regulus, therefore, resolved to carry on the war with vigour, and he led his troops toward Carthage. There was on the way a river named the Bágrada, and when the soldiers went to it for the purpose of getting water, they found its banks occupied by a serpent of the enormous length of one hundred and twenty feet. This monster destroyed several of the men, and drove off the remainder. As no weapons took effect on him, and the soldiers could not do without water, it was found necessary to employ the battering engines against him as against a fortress, and he thus at length was slain. His skin and jaw-bones were sent to Rome, where they were kept for many years in one of the temples.

Defeat and Captivity of Regulus.

Regulus took all the towns on the way to Carthage, and defeated an army which ventured to give him battle. The Carthaginians sent to him to know on what terms peace might be had ; but puffed up by success, he would grant none but

the most degrading conditions. His pride and insolence, however, were destined to receive a severe chastisement. The Carthaginians had sent to Greece to hire soldiers, and among those that came was a Lacedæmonian named Xanthippus, a brave and skilful officer. Xanthippus saw at once the errors they had committed in their preceding action with the Romans, and made it so plain to them that they gave him the command of their army; and though his troops were much less numerous than those of Regulus, he ventured to give him battle. So skilful were the dispositions of Xanthippus, that of the whole Roman army only two thousand men escaped; of the remainder, all were slain but five hundred, who, with Regulus himself, were made prisoners. The Carthaginians, as was only just, rewarded Xanthippus richly, and he returned to his own country. We are told (but it is a mere fable) that the Carthaginians gave orders to the captains of the ships which were appointed to carry him and his companions home, to drown them on the way, and that the orders were obeyed.

There is a fable which relates, that one time, when a man had shown to a lion a picture in which a man was represented overcoming a lion,

the king of the forest simply observed, that the case would probably have been reversed if the lions were painters. This fable will often present itself to one's mind in reading the early Roman history, for almost all the accounts that we have are from the Romans themselves, as there are no Samnite or Punic historians to give the other side of the picture, and the Romans might therefore invent as they pleased. The following celebrated tale is an example of the boldness of the Romans in fiction.)

When Regulus had been for five years a prisoner at Carthage, he was sent with an embassy to Rome on the subject of peace or an exchange of prisoners, giving his promise to return if it should not succeed. When he came to Rome he refused to enter the city, regarding himself as a slave and no longer a free Roman. With the permission of the ambassadors he attended the debates of the senate; but instead of urging them to peace, as was expected, he advised them by no means to think of peace, or even of an exchange of prisoners; as for himself, he said a slow poison had been given him, and he had not long to live, it was therefore needless for them to think of *him*, or injure their country on his account. The se-

nate voted as he wished, and rejecting the embraces of his friends and relations, he returned to Carthage, where he shortly after died. So far the story is probably true; but the Romans added, that the Carthaginians were so enraged at his patriotic conduct, that they resolved to put him to the most cruel kind of death, and that they therefore cut off his eyelids, and then put him into a cask or chest set full of iron spikes, and exposed him to the burning rays of the sun, till pain, want of sleep, and want of food terminated his existence.

The Consul Claudius.

We have had more than one occasion to notice the proud and arrogant character of the Claudian family. During this war, one of them being consul, was sent out in command of a fleet. In hopes of surprising a town on the coast of Sicily, he sailed for it in the night, but not arriving till day-break, he found a Punic fleet ready to engage him. The sacred fowls were as usual let out of their coop, and their keeper announced to the consul that they would not eat. "If they will not eat," replied he, "then they must drink," and he ordered them to be flung into the sea. This

profane conduct dispirited the soldiers, and the Roman fleet was defeated with the loss of nearly one hundred ships and their crews. When Claudius returned to Rome, he was ordered by the senate to appoint a dictator, and with true Claudian insolence he named his own clerk to that high office; but the senate forced him to resign. Claudius was prosecuted for his misconduct, and he died, as is probable, by his own hand. Some years after, as his sister Claudia was driving through the city, finding her carriage impeded by the crowds of people, she expressed aloud her wish that her brother were alive, that he might cause some more of them to be lost at sea to reduce their numbers. For this language she was prosecuted and fined. }

Victory of the Ægatian Isles.

After a duration of twenty-four years, the First Punic War was terminated by a naval victory gained by the Romans. The consul Lutatius, having put to sea with a fleet of two hundred ships, blockaded one of the Punic towns on the coast of Sicily. The Carthaginians immediately got ready all their ships of war, and lading them with corn and other stores, directed their admiral,

Hanno, to sail over to Sicily, where Hamílear, their ablest general, then was, and having landed the stores, to take Hamílear and his best troops on board, and then to engage the Romans. Hanno sailed straight to the Ægatian isles, off cape Lilybæum, in Sicily, and Lutatius, who was not far off, and who seems to have learned the plan of the Carthaginians, resolved to give him battle at once. Accordingly, next morning, though the sea was rough and the wind favourable to the enemy, he put to sea and succeeded in bringing on an engagement. As the Punic ships were heavily laden, and they had not Hamílear's troops on board, they were totally unable to contend with those of the Romans, and the consequence was a total defeat. The resources of Carthage were now quite exhausted, and she was forced to sue for peace, which was granted on the conditions of her giving up all claim to Sicily, and paying the Romans a large sum of money.

CHAPTER VI.

Second Punic War.

THE terms imposed by the Romans were so hard and so offensive to the pride of the Carthaginians, that they were resolved to consider the peace as nothing more than a truce, and to employ themselves diligently to the acquisition of the means for renewing the war. Hamilcar, who was conscious of his own great talents, and persuaded that but for the misconduct of others he would have driven the Romans out of Sicily, longed ardently to renew the contest. With this view he urged the people of Carthage to attempt the conquest of Spain, whose gold and silver mines would supply them with money, while its brave and hardy population would yield them abundance of soldiers. His proposal was agreed to, and the command of the army destined for that purpose was committed to himself.

We are told that when Hamilcar was, according to the custom, offering sacrifice previous to embarkation, he made those who were present withdraw for a little space, and then taking his son Hannibal, a boy of only nine years of age, up to

the altar, asked him if he was willing to go with him, and on his giving a cheerful consent, he made him lay his hand on the flesh of the victim and swear eternal enmity to Rome. We shall see how faithfully Hannibal kept his oath.

Siege and Capture of Saguntum.

During a space of sixteen years Hamilcar and his son-in-law Hasdrubal (who succeeded him in the command) carried on war with great success in Spain. On the death of the latter, the army made Hannibal, who was now twenty-five years of age, commander-in-chief, and the senate at Carthage confirmed their choice. Hannibal felt that the time for executing his father's mighty projects was now arrived, and he proposed marching with his veteran army into Italy, and exciting the Gauls, the Samnites, and the other nations to rise and assert their independence. Meantime he carried on the war with vigour in Spain, and as all the people of that country south of the river Ebro, except the city of Saguntum, had submitted to the Punic yoke, he resolved to conquer that town before his departure, and he sat down before it with an army of one hundred thousand men. The Saguntines, who were in alliance with the

Romans, sent to Rome imploring assistance; but the senate did nothing but send embassies to Carthage and to Hannibal, which were treated with neglect, and after holding out gallantly for the space of eight months, Saguntum was taken by storm, and all its inhabitants were massacred or enslaved. The Romans, when they heard of this event, sent an embassy to Carthage to declare war, unless Hannibal were given up to them. Fabius Maximus, the chief of the embassy, simply stated the demands of Rome; the Carthaginian senate hesitated, not wishing to give up Hannibal, and willing to avoid if possible owning that he had acted by public authority. Fabius then, holding up his mantle, said, "In this I bear peace or war; take which you will." "Give which you please," replied they. "War, then," cried he, shaking it out. "We accept it," was shouted forth on all sides. The Roman embassy then departed.

Hannibal's March for Italy.

The winter having been spent in making the necessary preparations, Hannibal set out in the spring from the city of New Carthage (now called Carthagéna) at the head of an army of one hun-

dred thousand men, and crossed the river Ebro. He subdued all the country thence to the Pyrenees, the mountains dividing Spain from Gaul; and he entered this latter country with sixty thousand men, having been obliged to leave part of his army in Spain. He met with no opposition till he came to the river Rhone, where he found a Gallic army on the opposite side prepared to dispute the passage of that river. As the Rhone was broad and rapid, he would not attempt to cross it in the face of a large army; but at nightfall he sent off a division of his troops with directions to march for some distance up the stream, and then crossing it to come down the other side and attack the enemy in the rear. All succeeded as he desired, and when the appointed signal had been made, Hannibal, having everything ready, commenced the passage. The Gauls rushed down to oppose him, but presently they saw their camp behind them in flames, and being attacked in front and rear, they soon turned and fled. Hannibal then got over the remainder of his troops without any difficulty. The elephants, however, caused some trouble; but the following plan being devised, they also were got over in safety. Broad rafts of timber were placed close to the bank of

the river and made fast ; other moveable rafts were then placed outside of them in the river, and the whole was covered over with earth so as to look like land. Two female elephants being then set as their leaders, the elephants were readily induced to go on the rafts, and when they were on the outer ones, these were loosed and towed across by boats. Most of the elephants remained quiet, a few jumped off the rafts into the river, but they were saved, and not a single one was lost.

Passage of the Alps.

Hannibal now marched for four days up the banks of the Rhone, till he came to its junction with the Isère, along which last river he marched for the space of one hundred miles till he reached the Alps, through which his course lay into Italy. He found the passes occupied by the Gauls ; but observing that they only kept guard by day, he sent off some of his best troops by night and secured the positions they used to occupy, and he thus was able to enter the interior of the mountains. After overcoming some difficulties, the army reached a fertile valley filled with herds of cattle, along which its march lay for three days. A rugged precipitous pass led out of this valley

at its further end, and as the Gauls, who occupied the heights above it, showered stones and rolled down rocks on them, the loss in men and beasts was considerable.

On the ninth day from that of its entering the Alps the army reached their summit. A halt was there made for two days, to refresh the troops and enable those who had been left behind to rejoin. It was now late in the autumn, and the snow had begun to fall. This dispirited the troops; but Hannibal, by pointing out to them the rich plains of Italy, which were now in view, and assuring them of the ease with which they might conquer them, soon roused them to energy, and they commenced the descent. Though there was no enemy to impede them, the difficulties were now greater than ever, for the new-fallen snow had effaced the path, and those who happened to miss it, rolled down the precipices. They still, however, went on till they found themselves at the edge of a steep, down which it was evident they would never be able to get the elephants and the beasts of burden. They tried to go round it, but could not, and they were obliged to clear away the snow and encamp there for the night. Next morning Hannibal set his men to work at cutting away the

rock and leveling a way down. For this purpose, it is said, he caused trees to be cut and piled about the rocks and set fire to, and when the flames had heated the rocks he poured vinegar on them, which made them soft and easy to cut. It was three days before they were able to get down the elephants, but they at last succeeded. The remainder of the descent offered but little difficulty, and the army finally encamped in the modern Piedmont. Exactly five months had passed since Hannibal set out from New Carthage, and the losses sustained in that time from hardships, desertion and other causes, had been such that his army now counted only twenty-six thousand men; but these were all hardy and experienced veterans.

Battle of the Ticinus.

After giving his troops the needful repose, Hannibal led them down into the great plain of the Po, which forms the north of Italy. The Roman consul Scipio advanced to oppose him, and on the banks of the Ticinus, one of the rivers that enter the Po, the two generals encountered, each at the head of his cavalry. But the Roman cavalry proved far inferior to the African and Spanish horse of Hannibal. The consul himself

received a severe wound, and would have been slain but for the aid of his son, a youth of seventeen years of age. Aware now of the great superiority of the enemy in cavalry, Scipio made all speed to remove his troops to the other side of the Po, where the country was less level. Hannibal pursued, but Scipio had time to get nearly all his men over and to loosen the bridge of rafts which he had formed, and Hannibal had to march for two days up the river before he could get across.

Scipio, when he found Hannibal approaching to Placentia, where he then lay, fell back and took a position among the hills about the river Trebia, where he was joined by his colleague Sempronius. Hannibal meantime lay about five miles off, on the other side of the Trebia.

Battle of the Trebia.

The consuls differed in opinion. Scipio, on account of his wound, and from other causes, wished for delay, while Sempronius hoping to obtain all the glory, was anxious for battle. Hannibal, like every invader, to whom delay is ruin, was desirous of bringing matters to a decision as speedily as possible, and he resolved to take ad-

vantage of Sempronius' ardour. Observing that there was in the plain between the two armies a stream whose banks were overgrown with bushes and briers, during the night he made his brother Mago place himself in ambush in it with a body of horse and foot, and in the morning he sent his light Numidian horse over the Trebia to try to provoke the enemy; meantime he directed the rest of his troops to take their breakfast and prepare for action.

The impetuous Sempronius fell into the snare. He sent his light troops to drive off the Numidians, and then led out his whole army. It was now mid-winter, the day was snowy and bitterly cold, and the Trebia was so swollen by the rains, that it was breast-high on the infantry as they waded across. Cold and hungry they advanced to engage troops that were fresh and vigorous, for Hannibal had directed his men to anoint and arm themselves in their tents by the fire. The Romans were assailed in front by the Punic infantry and the elephants, on the flanks by the cavalry, and in the rear by the troops that were in ambush, and they were finally routed with immense loss. Owing to the wet and cold all the elephants in Hannibal's army perished but one.

Battle of the Trasimene Lake.

‘In the spring, Hannibal, as the Roman army had taken its station in Etruria, prepared to enter that country. He took his way through the marshes formed by the river Arno. For three days and nights the army had to march through water, enduring every kind of hardship. Most of the beasts of burden perished, several of the horses lost their hoofs: Hannibal himself, who rode on his sole remaining elephant, lost the sight of one of his eyes.’ As the Roman consul Flaminius was a vain, rash man, quite ignorant of war, Hannibal made every effort to bring him to action before the arrival of his colleague. For this purpose he began to lay waste all the country. Flaminius, against the advice of his officers, resolved to give him battle, and Hannibal, aware of his intention, selected the most advantageous position. He advanced, followed by Flaminius, between the hills of Cortóna and the Trasimene lake, till he came to a place where the hills approach the lake, leaving only a narrow path, and then recede, forming a valley whose further end is closed by an eminence. He placed his troops of the line at the further extremity of the valley, with his cavalry and

light troops on the hills at each side. Flaminius, arriving in the evening at the pass, encamped outside of it, and in the morning he led his troops into the valley. A dense fog, which rose from the lake and spread over the valley, concealed the enemy from the view of the Romans till they reached the place where they stood awaiting them, when, Hannibal giving the signal, they were assailed in front and flank, and not having time to form they were cut down in their line of march. Flaminius fell in the very beginning of the action ; numbers, to save themselves, ran up to their necks in the waters of the lake, but the enemy's cavalry followed them even there, and cut them to pieces. So entirely absorbed were both parties, it is said, by ardour or terror, that they did not perceive the shock of an earthquake which took place during the engagement, and whose force was such as to throw down the walls of towns, sink mountains, and turn the course of rivers. The loss of the Romans was fifteen thousand men slain and as many made prisoners.

The news reached Rome that very evening. It was usual with the senate to conceal or extenuate reverses as much as possible, but the present one was of too great magnitude for such a course ;

and the prætor or chief magistrate of the city, ascending the Rostra, said aloud to the multitude, "We have been overcome in a great battle." The people were filled with dismay at the tidings, but the senate, ever firm in adversity, remained calm and unmoved. They appointed Fabius, afterwards named Cunctator or Delayer, to be dictator, and made every effort to raise troops.

Fabius the Delayer.

Hannibal, whose great object it was to engage the Samnites and other tribes to rise against the Romans, advanced into the country of the Marsians, and thence went on to Apulia. Fabius, at the head of four legions, came and encamped on the hills above him; and as Hannibal moved he moved too, still keeping to the hills, and giving him no opportunity of fighting. Hannibal then turned suddenly, and spread his troops over the fertile plains of Campania. Fabius still occupied the hills beside him, and neither the sight of the ruined vineyards, the burning villages, nor the entreaties and reproaches of his own officers, could induce him to depart from his cautious system of tactics.

At length Hannibal prepared to quit Campania,

and put his troops into winter-quarters. Fabius, thinking the time for action now arrived, occupied some strong positions on the only way that led out of Campania. Hannibal, seeing the road thus impeded, had recourse to stratagem. He selected two thousand oxen out of the booty he had taken, and tied bundles of brushwood on their horns, and he directed the baggage-drivers to set fire to these bundles toward the latter part of the night, and to drive the oxen up the side of the hill close to the pass. The oxen, maddened by the heat and flame, ran wildly up the hill, and the Romans, seeing the number of the lights, and thinking that the enemy was escaping that way, quitted the pass and ran to occupy the summit of the hill; Hannibal then, finding the passage free, lost no time in leading his army through it, and he made his way in safety to Apulia, though still followed by Fabius.

The dictator being obliged to return to Rome, left the command with Minucius, the master of the horse, charging him on no account to give battle; but Minucius, like Fabius' ancestor, paid little attention to the charge, and he gained the advantage in some skirmishes. These successes were so magnified at Rome, that the people passed

a decree, making Minucius equal in authority with the dictator. Fabius was too noble-minded to complain; he divided the troops with him, and they formed separate camps. Hannibal, whom nothing escaped, now laid a trap for the impetuosity of Minucius; and he contrived to bring on an action, in which the latter was on the very point of being defeated, when Fabius came to his aid. Hannibal then retired, observing that the cloud which had lain so long on the top of the mountains, had at last come down in rain and tempest. Minucius candidly owned his fault and the superior wisdom of the dictator, and the two armies encamped together as before.

Battle of Cannæ.

The next consuls were Æmilius, a man of high rank, and Varro, the son of a butcher, whom the popular favour had raised. They took the field with a large army, and advanced to the relief of a town named Cannæ in Apulia, which Hannibal was besieging. Before they left Rome, Fabius and other prudent men exerted themselves to impress on the mind of Æmilius, in whom all their hopes lay, the necessity of caution, and of restraining his vain and ignorant colleague,

as this army might be regarded as Rome's last stake.

As the Roman consuls, when together, used to take the command day and day about, Æmilius had not the power of controlling his colleague, and Hannibal, by sending forward his light horse, as at the Trebia, soon contrived to provoke Varro to an engagement; and he also managed that the Romans should be so placed that the wind should blow clouds of dust in their faces. The superiority of cavalry was on the side of Hannibal, but his infantry was not more than the half of that of the Romans. The battle was chiefly decided by the Punic horse, which after having routed and driven off the field that of the Romans, turned and fell on the rear of their infantry. A more complete victory never was gained; of eighty thousand Roman infantry, only two thousand escaped death or captivity, and only three hundred and seventy out of a body of six thousand horse. Varro escaped out of the battle with only seventy horsemen; Minucius, the late master of the horse, twenty-one tribunes, and a great number of senators and men of rank were slain. Among these was the consul Æmilius; being severely wounded he sat down on a stone, where he was observed by

a tribune, named Léntulus, who was among the fugitives. Lentulus stopped and wanted him to take his horse and try to escape; but the consul refused, and bade him hasten to Rome and tell the senate from him to make no delay in providing for the defence of the city; he also charged him to assure Fabius that he had lived and died mindful of his precepts. Lentulus was hurried away by the crowd of the fugitives, and the pursuers, coming up, killed Æmilius without knowing his rank.

After the battle, one of his officers strongly urged Hannibal to march directly for Rome, which was probably now defenceless; and on his declining to do so, he told him that he knew how to conquer, but not how to use his victory. Hannibal, however, judged it better to try to induce the subjects and allies of Rome to revolt; and in this he had abundant success, for the whole south of Italy declared for him. He advanced into Campania, and took up his winter-quarters in the wealthy luxurious city of Capua, where, it is said, his troops, by indulging in riot and debauchery, lost their vigour and discipline. He sent his brother Mago off to Carthage with the news of his victory; and Mago, to give the senate a con-

vincing proof of its truth, emptied out before them a bushel of gold rings which were worn by the Roman knights, showing how great a number of them had been slain.

Magnanimity of the Roman Senate.

As to the Roman senate, though fully aware of the dangers that menaced Rome, they did not lose courage ; and when Varro returned to the city all orders of the people went forth to meet him, and thanked him for not having despaired of the republic. Hannibal being in want of money offered his prisoners their liberty for a moderate ransom, and he allowed ten of them to go to Rome with Cárthalo, one of his officers, to consult the senate on their giving their oath to return ; but the senate, unmoved by the tears and entreaties of the families of the captives, would listen to no proposals of ransom, and they had to return to bondage. One of them, on leaving the Punic camp, had gone back under pretence of having forgotten something, and he thus fancied himself released from his oath ; but the senate, disgusted with such paltry sophistry, had him taken and sent back to Hannibal. }

CHAPTER VII.

Taking of Tarentum.

THE Romans did not venture for some years to meet Hannibal in the field, and the war consisted chiefly in the attack and defence of towns. During this time Hannibal made himself master of Tarentum by the following stratagem.

Some young men there, irritated by the severity of the Romans, formed a plot to deliver the town up to Hannibal. For this purpose, leaving the city under the pretence of hunting, they went to his camp, which lay at a distance of three days' march from Tarentum, to concert measures with him. All things being arranged, Hannibal desired them, as they were going away, to drive off some of the cattle belonging to the camp, as this exploit would give them credit in the eyes of their townspeople, and help to conceal their designs. In this way they went backwards and forwards several times; and it was then arranged that the rest should remain quiet while one of them, named Philémenus, whose passion for the chase was well known, should keep going in and out of the town under the pretext of hunting. He

always went and came at night, pretending fear of the enemy, and he always brought back plenty of game, partly killed by himself, partly given to him by Hannibal. Of this he always gave a share to Livius, the Roman commander, and to those who kept guard at the gate by which he used to come in. He gained their confidence so completely at last, that as soon as his whistle was heard, the gate was opened without any inquiry.*

When the time for making the attempt on the town was come, Hannibal, guided by Philemenus, set out before dawn one day with ten thousand of his best troops, and the march was so arranged that they should reach Tarentum by midnight. The conspirators, who were on the watch for the signal, which was to be made by fire, when they had seen and returned it, rushed to one of the gates, where they killed the guards and admitted Hannibal with his infantry. Meantime, Philemenus went with one thousand men to the gate he was used to enter at. He had with him the carcass of a huge wild boar, which himself and three others bore on a hand-barrow; and while the man on guard was busily engaged in handling and admiring it, they killed him and then let in the soldiers, with whom they hastened to join

Hannibal, who was in the market-place. Orders were given to kill all the Romans. Some, who had gotten some Roman trumpets, and knew how to blow the call on them, stood at the theatre and sounded, and as the soldiers hastened to the call they were met and slain. Livius took refuge in the citadel, which stood on a small peninsula, where he was closely besieged by sea and by land.

* About three years after, the Romans recovered Tarentum also by stratagem. The Roman consul Fabius laid siege to it; and as he was preparing to assail it with machines, he learned that there was an easier way of taking it. It appeared that the commander of the garrison was in love with the sister of a man who was serving in the army of Fabius, and this last, with the consul's permission, went into the town as a deserter, to try if he could prevail on his sister's lover to betray it. He succeeded; Fabius was secretly admitted, and the town was taken. Hannibal, who was hastening to its relief, when informed of its capture, cried, "The Romans have their Hannibal. We have lost Tarentum in the way that we gained it."

Siege and Capture of Syracuse.

The booty taken at Tarentum was immense.

Like most Grecian cities, it abounded in paintings and statues, which, however, Fabius left untouched, though the Romans had lately commenced that system of spoliation and robbery of works of art which was imitated and carried to such an extent by their apes in every thing that was bad,—the French after their revolution,—a candid confession of both, by the way, of their despair of attaining to eminence in the fine arts.

The occasion on which the Romans began to rob the temples of the gods, and make booty of paintings and statues, was the capture of Syracuse. After the death of king Hicro, the steady ally of Rome, who had governed his little kingdom in prosperity and happiness for a term of fifty years, the Syracusans joined the Carthaginians, and went to war with the Romans. The Roman general Marcellus soon appeared with a fleet and army before the town, and attacked it by sea and land. He caused several of his largest ships to be fastened together and brought up close to the town wall, and lofty wooden towers to be erected on them, whence the garrison might be assailed with missiles, while on the decks large engines were worked against the walls, and light troops kept up a constant discharge from ships

ranged behind them. But Archimédes, the greatest mathematician of the age, was in the town, and he invented machines which frustrated all the efforts of the Romans. One of these machines was a great iron hand, which would seize a ship by its prow, and turn it up till it was resting on its stern, and then let it suddenly fall. Another of his inventions was burning-glasses, by means of which he set several of the Roman ships on fire.

Marcellus found himself obliged to convert the siege into a blockade; but some time after, taking advantage of a festival which the Syracusans were celebrating in honour of the goddess Diana, he made himself master of a part of the town, and a Spanish officer of mercenaries soon after betrayed the remaining part to him. The town was given up to plunder; and as one of the soldiers was ranging in quest of booty, he happened to enter the room where Archimedes was deeply engaged over his geometrical figures, and ignorant of the capture of the city. The rough soldier, not knowing who he was, bade him rise and follow him to Marcellus; but he refused to stir till he had worked out his problem, and the soldier drew his sword and killed him. This event caused Marcellus much grief; and he made all the compen-

sation he could, by giving Archimedes a splendid funeral, and by providing for his family. Marcellus carried away the pictures and statues of the Syracusan temples to adorn his triumph at Rome.

Hannibal's March to Rome.

The Romans had laid ^{*}siege to Capua, and shut it in so closely that Hannibal found it impossible to relieve it. He resolved therefore to make a diversion by marching for Rome; and he advanced with such rapidity, that almost before the Romans were aware of his march he was encamped on the Anio, only three miles from the city; and he even advanced with his cavalry up almost to its gates. A part of the army had been recalled from before Capua, and other troops were joined with it. Hannibal offered battle; but just as the two armies were drawn out, and about to engage, there came on a violent tempest of rain and hail, which separated them. The very same thing occurred the next day, and as soon as they had returned to their camps, the sky cleared and the weather became serene. Hannibal, it is said, thinking he saw in this the hand of Heaven, led off his troops and retired to the south of Italy. It is also said that he learned that the very ground on which he was encamped

had been offered for sale, and had fetched its full value,—a proof that the Romans had no intention of yielding. He then, by way of derision, called for an auctioneer and made him set up for sale the bankers' shops in the Roman Forum.

The Great Scipio.

The war was not confined to Italy. Scipio (who commanded at the Ticinus) and his brother had passed over with an army to Spain; but after being for some time extremely successful, they were at length both defeated and slain. The Romans were in great perplexity about appointing a successor, as no one seemed inclined to undertake the charge, when the son of one of the Scipios who had been slain came forward and sought the command. Though he was only four-and-twenty years of age he was unanimously chosen, and he shortly after sailed for Spain.

This is the Scipio who saved his father's life at the Ticinus: he also distinguished himself by his firmness and presence of mind after the fatal battle of Cannæ. From the time that he was, seventeen years of age he never did anything of importance without previously ascending the Capitol and sitting for some time in the Temple of

Jupiter, as if in consultation with the god. People also talked of a huge serpent that used to be seen in his mother's chamber, and which always vanished when any one entered; hence many fancied, that, like Alexander the Great, of whom the same story was told, Scipio was of divine origin.

Taking of New Carthage.—*Scipio's Generosity.*

Scipio's first operation in Spain was the siege of New Carthage. This town lay on a peninsula in a bay; the water on one side of it was deep, on the other so shallow, that when the tide was out it was little more than a marsh. Scipio first attempted to take the town by assault, but the ladders proved too short, and he was forced to sound a retreat. After a short time he ordered those of his troops who had not been engaged to take the ladders and renew the assault. It was now mid-day, and a strong wind, united with the ebb of the tide, had rendered the marshy part of the bay quite shallow. Scipio, observing it, directed a body of men to take Neptune for their guide, and wade through the marsh to the town. As the wall on that side was low and slightly defended, they easily got in, and then rushed to the gates and opened them to their comrades,

and thus the strong and wealthy city of New Carthage was attacked and taken in the one day.

The booty taken was immense. Among the captives was a young maiden of singular beauty, whom the captors selected as a prize for their young general, who was known to be an admirer of the fair sex. Scipio inquired who and whence she was, and learned, among other circumstances, that she was betrothed to a Celtiberian prince named Allucius. He sent to summon her parents and her lover to his presence. On their arrival he first spoke with Allucius, assuring him that the maiden, while in his hands, had been treated with the same respect as if she had been in her father's house. In return he asked him to become the friend of the Roman people. The prince grasped his hand, and with tears assured him of his gratitude. The parents and relatives of the maiden were then called in, and finding that she was to be released without ransom, they pressed Scipio to accept, as a gift, the gold they had brought. He consented, the gold was laid at his feet, and he then desired Allucius to take it as an addition to his bride's dower. Allucius, on his return home, extolled the magnanimity of Scipio to the skies, and

he shortly after joined him with a body of fourteen hundred horse.

Defeat of Hasdrubal.

Hannibal being urgent with the senate of Carthage to send him reinforcements, orders were forwarded to his brother Hasdrubal, who was in Spain, to march an army into Italy. As Scipio guarded the eastern passage of the Pyrenees, Hasdrubal entered Gaul on the west side (by the modern town of Bayonne), and then marched for the Alps. He encountered no opposition on the way or in his passage over these mountains, and he entered Italy without having sustained any loss. Instead, however, of advancing at once to join his brother, he wasted his time in besieging the city of Placentia. Being at length obliged to raise the siege, he began to move southwards; and he wrote to Hannibal to meet him in Umbria, but his letter was intercepted by the Romans.

The consuls of this year were Livius and Claudius Nero. They had divided their forces; and while Nero opposed Hannibal, his colleague advanced against Hasdrubal. It was into the hands of Nero that the letter of Hasdrubal fell, and he instantly formed a plan for his destruction. He

sent orders to the people of the country between his camp and that of Livius, to prepare provisions, horses and beasts of burden; and then selecting six thousand foot and one thousand horse of his army, he directed them to be ready to march at nightfall. On the way he told them his design, which was to join his colleague: they marched night and day; the people of the towns on the way furnished them with abundant supplies, and they reached, undiscovered, the mountains near which Livius and Hasdrubal were encamped. They entered the Roman camp by night, and lest if the camp were enlarged the suspicions of Hasdrubal might be excited, the officers and soldiers of Livius' army gave share of their tents to the newcomers. It was proposed in a council to give a few days' rest to Nero's men; but Nero himself advised to give battle at once, lest Hannibal, finding how he had been deceived, should hasten to join his brother.

The wary Hasdrubal, however, was not deceived. He observed the old shields and the lean horses of a part of the Roman soldiers, and that their number was increased; he also learned that the trumpet was now sounded twice in the camp of Livius, a proof that the other consul must be

there, and he began to fear lest his brother had been defeated. Still thinking that it might only have been that his letters were intercepted, he resolved to decamp in the night, and fall back till he should have had sure intelligence from his brother. He therefore set out early in the night, but his guides ran away, and he was unable to find a ford in the river Metaurus. In the morning the Roman army came up, and he could not avoid an engagement.

The superiority in the number of troops was on the side of Hasdrubal, but they were composed of various nations, and only a part of the Spaniards were veterans. The consequence was, that though he performed all the parts of an able general, his army was defeated with immense slaughter. Seeing the battle totally lost, he gave spurs to his horse, and rushing into the midst of the Romans, died as became the son of Hamilcar and the brother of Hannibal.

Nero set out that very night on his return to his own army, bearing with him the head of Hasdrubal, which he caused to be flung into the camp of Hannibal, at the same time sending in some of his prisoners with the intelligence. "I see the doom of Carthage," was the only remark of that

great man, who thus perceived the frustration of all his plans for the conquest of Rome.

Scipio in Spain.

Scipio, meantime, had brought the greater part of Spain under the Roman dominion. Among the towns which he reduced was one named A'stapa, in the modern Andalusia. Its inhabitants, who lived chiefly by plunder, knew that they had no mercy to expect; and collecting all their valuable property into the market-place, they piled it up; and making their women and children sit on the pile, they heaped wood and faggots around them. They then set fifty armed young men to guard it, charging them when they should see the town on the point of being taken, to destroy all there with fire and sword. They then opened the gates and rushed out; they drove off the horse and light troops, but at length, overpowered by numbers, they perished to a man. The fifty young men then drew their swords, slaughtered the women and children, threw their bodies on the pile, set fire to it, and flung themselves into the flames.

Some time after Scipio fell sick, and a report being spread that he was dead, a part of the

Roman troops broke out into mutiny, drove away their officers, and gave the command to two common soldiers; but an order to march to New Carthage and submit to their general, soon convinced them of their error, and they did not venture to disobey. They reached that city at sunset, and found the troops that were there marching out against the Spaniards. The sight pleased them, for they thought they should now have Scipio in their power; and in the morning they came round his tribunal in the market with fierce and insolent looks. But the other troops, who had only left the town in appearance, had returned and secured the gates, and were now, as they might see, surrounding them, while they themselves were, according to custom, unarmed. Scipio had also given orders for the ringleaders to be secured in the night; and when he found that all his commands had been obeyed, he rose and reproached the mutineers with their conduct, offering, in conclusion, pardon to all but their leaders. The soldiers behind clashed their arms, the crier proclaimed the names of the condemned; they were dragged forth naked, thirty-five in number, bound to the stake, scourged and beheaded, their comrades not daring even to groan.

Invasion of Africa.

Scipio, on his return to Rome, was made consul, and he then proposed to the senate the invasion of Africa; but some were jealous of him, others thought the plan too hazardous while Hannibal was still in Italy. After a good deal of difficulty he obtained a reluctant consent, but they endeavoured to make it of no avail by refusing him leave to levy troops, and by also refusing the money for fitting out the fleet. Scipio only asked to be allowed to take volunteers and free gifts. This could not be refused; volunteers came from all parts, and the towns of Etruria furnished the materials for ship-building, with arms and corn in such abundance, that in a very short time Scipio was able to pass over to Sicily with a numerous fleet and army. • He employed the winter in making the requisite preparations, and early in the following year he embarked with a force of thirty-five thousand men, and landed near the town of Utica on the west side of Carthage.

Destruction of the Punic camp and army.

Scipio was joined by a Numidian prince named Massinissa, who had been driven out of his dominions by another prince named Syphax, and who,

from his knowledge of the country and influence over the Numidians, proved very useful to the Romans. Syphax was on the side of the Carthaginians, and he and the Punic general Hasdrubal formed two camps near to that of Scipio, who entered into negotiations with him in the hope of detaching him from the side of Carthage. But Syphax would not abandon his allies, and from the information which Scipio obtained, during the treaty, of the condition of the two camps, he conceived the horrible project of setting fire to them in the night and slaughtering the troops amidst the flames. For this purpose he went on with the negotiations, taking care to send some of his most intelligent soldiers with the envoys, disguised as slaves, that they might take note of every thing in the two camps. When he had every thing prepared he broke off the treaty, and summoning his ablest officers, he communicated to them his plan, and directed them to lead out their men after supper. At nightfall he set out with his troops, and when he came near the camps of the enemy, he made two divisions of them, sending one under his friends Lælius and Massinissa to attack the camp of Syphax, while he himself led the other to that of Hasdrubal.

It had been ascertained that in the Punic camp the men lay in huts formed of wood and leaves, and that the huts in that of Syphax were made merely of reeds. Lælius and Massinissa, therefore, divided their forces; and while the latter guarded all the avenues of Syphax's camp, the former set fire to it. The Numidians, roused from their sleep by the flames and taking the fire to be accidental, endeavoured to get out of the camp naked as they were, but soon perished in the flames, others were trampled to death in the rush for the gates, and those that got out were slaughtered by the troops of Massinissa. Those in the other camp, as they came out to give them aid or to gaze on the conflagration, were massacred by Scipio's troops, who also set fire to their camp. Exclusive of the horses and beasts of burthen, not less than forty thousand human beings perished by the sword and the flames in this ruthless massacre, perpetrated by one of the most distinguished men that Rome ever produced. We cannot praise Scipio on this occasion, for he gained his advantage by treachery and bad faith. †

Sophonisba.

In about thirty days Syphax and the Carthaginians had assembled a new army, with which they gave Scipio battle, but they were signally defeated. Syphax fled to his own kingdom, whither he was pursued by Lælius and Massinissa, who defeated him again and made him a prisoner, and Massinissa advanced with all speed to Cirta, the capital of Numidia ; that city surrendered as soon as he appeared. He there met a person whose influence over him was near proving his ruin.

Massinissa had been brought up at Carthago, and a man of rank there named Hasdrubal, pleased with his noble qualities, had betrothed to him his daughter Sophonisba, the most beautiful and accomplished maiden in Carthage. He accompanied Hasdrubal to Spain, and during his absence Syphax sought the hand of Sophonisba ; and as he was the more powerful prince of the two, the senate made Hasdrubal give him his daughter on the condition of his becoming the ally of Carthage. Massinissa, when he found how he was treated, joined the Romans, and he now as a conqueror entered his rival's capital. When he went to take possession of the palace, Sophonisba advanced to

meet him, and falling on her knees implored him, by the memory of his former affection, to put her to death rather than give her up to the Romans. Massinissa, whose love had revived, proposed, as the only means of saving her, to make her his wife that very day. She consented, and the marriage took place before the arrival of Lælius; but when that officer learned what Massinissa had done, he was going to drag his bride from him by force. At length, however, he consented to leave the decision to Scipio.

When Massinissa appeared before Scipio, the young Roman lectured him gravely on the imprudence of his conduct in thus attempting to deprive the Romans of a part of their booty, and insisted on his giving up Sophonisba. The Numidian burst into a flood of tears, but Scipio was unmoved. Massinissa then retired to his tent, and after giving way to an agony of grief, he called a trusty servant who kept the poison with which monarchs in those times were always provided; bade him bear it to Sophonisba, and tell her to act as might become the daughter of Hasdrubal and the spouse of two kings. The servant hastened to Cirta. "I accept the nuptial gift," said Sophonisba, taking in her hand a bowl of

poison: "no ungrateful one if a husband could give his wife nothing better. Tell him only this, that I should have died with more glory if I had not married on the eve of death." She then put the bowl to her lips and swallowed its contents.

Battle of Zama.

The Carthaginians found it necessary to recall Hannibal to the defence of his country. He groaned in spirit, it is said, when he received the order, but he yielded to it a ready obedience. When he landed in Africa he assembled an army as speedily as possible, with which he advanced to encounter Scipio. The two armies encamped not far from a town named Zama, five days' journey from Carthage. Hannibal, in the hope of obtaining a peace for his exhausted country, proposed a personal interview, to which Scipio consented, and they met in the plain between their camps, an interpreter alone being present. Hannibal reminded the Roman of the instability of fortune, of which he was himself so notable an instance, and offered, on the part of Carthage, to give up all claim to Spain and to Sicily, and all the other islands; but Scipio would accept of nothing short of unconditional submission, and the

two generals retired to their camps to prepare for battle.

At dawn the next morning the two armies were drawn out in array of battle. Hannibal was the greater general of the two, and his troops were the more numerous, but they were of inferior quality, being, with the exception of those he had brought from Italy, mere raw levies. His dispositions were admirable, and he did all that was in man to secure the victory. The dispositions on Scipio's side were equally good, and he had the advantage of having superior troops. The veteran soldiers of Hannibal fought in a manner worthy of their fame, but his other troops proved nearly useless, and a signal victory remained with the Romans. Hannibal hastened to Carthage, which he had not seen for six-and-thirty years, and advised the senate to sue for peace. Envoys were sent to Scipio and then to Rome, and peace was obtained on such terms as left Carthage a mere vassal to Rome. Hannibal, however, knowing that the resources of the country were exhausted, advised to accept it, and thus, after a duration of seventeen years, ended the second Punic war.

Scipio triumphed on his return to Rome, and obtained the name of Africanus.

CHAPTER VIII.

Death of Hannibal.

DURING a space of fifty years Carthage remained in the state of subjection to which she had been reduced. In that time the Romans, whose appetite for conquest was not to be sated, overcame Philip and Perseus, kings of Macedonia; and they also carried their arms into Asia, where they defeated Antiochus the Great, king of Syria, and deprived him of a large portion of his dominions.

Hannibal, who had been forced to fly from Carthage by a party who were leagued with the Romans, and who could not endure the reforms that he was endeavouring to introduce in the state, had sought refuge at the court of Antiochus. Finding that the Romans made his surrender one of the conditions of peace, he secretly departed and sailed to the isle of Crete, whence he proceeded to the court of Prusias, king of Bithynia. But the Romans, considering that their dominion would never be secure so long as he lived, sent one of their principal men to demand of Prusias the delivery of Hannibal dead or alive. Prusias

sent a party of soldiers to seize his illustrious guest. Hannibal, who in expectation of treachery, had caused seven passages to be made from the house in which he dwelt, attempted to escape by the most secret one; but finding it guarded, he had recourse to the poison which he always carried about him as a last resort, and having uttered imprecations on the mean-spirited Prusias for his violation of the laws of hospitality and the rights of the suppliant, he drank off the poison and expired in the sixty-fifth year of his age.

Last days of Scipio.

Scipio, it is said, died in the same year with Hannibal, and he died in exile, an example, like his illustrious rival, of the mutability of fortune. He had accompanied to Asia his brother, to whom the charge of conducting the war against Antiochus had been committed; and after his return he was accused, by two of the tribunes, of having taken bribes from that monarch, and not having accounted for all the booty acquired in the war. Scipio appeared in the Forum attended by a great concourse of people. In a long speech he enumerated all the great actions he had performed in the service of his country, and then taking an

account-book out of his bosom, told the tribunes that it contained all they wanted to know. "Read it out then," said they. "No," replied he; "I will not offer myself such an insult;" and he tore up the book before their faces.

The cause was then deferred to the next day. The tribunes took their seats in the Forum at dawn, and Scipio, when cited, came attended as before. "This day," said he, "I defeated Hannibal in Africa. ~~As it~~ therefore, should be free from strife and litigation, I will go to the Capitol and give thanks to Jupiter and the other gods who inspired me on this and other days to do good service to the state. Let whoso will, come with me and pray to the gods that you may always have leaders like unto me." He ascended the Capitol; all followed him, and the tribunes were left sitting alone. He then went round to all the other temples, still followed by the people; and the glory of this day almost equalled that of the day of his triumph for the conquest of Carthage. Disgusted with the treatment he had experienced from the tribunes, and wishing to avoid all further contests with them, he left Rome shortly after and retired to Liternum in Campania, where he passed the short remainder of his days. He was buried

at Liternum by his own desire, that his ungrateful country might not even possess his ashes.

Third Punic War.

There was a distinguished man at Rome named Cato, who had contracted such a hatred to the Carthaginians, that he used always to end his speeches in the senate with these words, "I also think that Carthage should be destroyed." One day in the senate he let fall from his bosom some fine African figs, and when the senators admired them, he said, "The country that produces these is but three days' sail from Rome." There were others, however, who had more regard for justice than Cato, and who thought moreover that it would be for the advantage of Rome to have a rival to keep her from corruption. Most, however, were on the side of Cato, and it was resolved to seize the first opportunity of picking a quarrel with Carthage, and then destroying this ancient rival of Rome.

To those who were thus disposed it was not a matter of any difficulty to find an occasion of quarrel. The Romans, in fact, now played the part of the wolf in the fable of the wolf and the lamb; and the two consuls were sent out, at the

⁴ head of a large army, with secret orders not to desist from the war till Carthage should have been destroyed.

* The Carthaginians heard of the declaration of war and of the sailing of the fleet at the same time, and as they were utterly unprepared for war, they sent to Rome offering to surrender their city. The senate directed them to send three hundred children of their noblest families as hostages to the consuls in Sicily, and then to do as they should direct them. The children accordingly were sent amidst the tears and lamentations of their parents and relations, and they were immediately forwarded to Rome, while the consuls passed over to Africa. When envoys from Carthage waited on them there, they said, that as the Carthaginians wished to live in peace and quiet they could have no occasion for arms, and they required them to deliver up all they possessed. This order also was complied with, and the Romans then, thinking they had them completely in their power, told them that it was the will of the senate that they should quit Carthage, which the Romans intended to destroy, and build for themselves a city ten miles from the sea-coast. When the Carthaginian envoys heard this ruthless com-

mand to quit the scenes of their infancy, the tombs of their fathers, and the temples of their gods, they abandoned themselves to grief and despair; they tore their garments and their hair; they beat their breasts and faces, and rolled themselves on the earth, calling on their gods and reproaching the Romans with their treachery. The consuls coolly looked on, and took no notice of what they might say or do in their rage and agony.

When the envoys returned to Carthage, the people, who had been anxiously expecting their return, beholding their melancholy looks, abandoned themselves to despair. Soon, however, they passed to the opposite extreme of rage, and they rushed into the senate-house and tore to pieces those who had advised the delivery of the hostages and the arms; they stoned the ambassadors and dragged them through the streets; and they then fell on and abused all the Italians who came in their way. The senate resolved on war that very day; the temples of the gods were converted into workshops; men and women laboured day and night at the manufacture of arms; and the women also cut off their long hair that it might be twisted into bowstrings.

The resistance made by the Carthaginians was far more vigorous than the Romans had anticipated, and the siege of Carthage was in its second year when the Roman people, wearied with the incapacity shown by those who conducted it, raised to the consulate (though he was under the requisite age) Scipio, the son of Paulus Æmilius, the conqueror of Macedonia, and grandson by adoption of Scipio Africanus. On coming out to take the command in Africa, Scipio found the army completely undisciplined and in a state of disorder owing to the neglect of his predecessors, and it cost him some time and labour to bring it into a condition fit for action. When he had restored discipline among his troops, he commenced operations against Carthage, but the resistance of the besieged was still invincible, and he was obliged on the approach of winter to lead off his army.

Taking of Carthage.

In the spring, Scipio, by a vigorous assault, succeeded in making himself master of the port of Carthage. He thence penetrated to the marketplace, where he kept his men under arms during the night, and in the morning he advanced to the

attack of the citadel, whither the greater part of the people had fled for refuge. Three streets led from the market to the citadel; and from the houses, which were six stories high, missiles were showered on the Roman soldiers as they passed by. The Romans then burst into some of the houses, and went along the flat roofs, killing and flinging down into the street all who came in their way. The air was filled with the shrieks of women and children, the groans of the wounded and dying, and the triumphant and insulting shouts of the victors. When the troops got clear of the streets they set fire to the houses, and then the old men, the women, and the children, forced to quit the places in which they had concealed themselves, became the prey of the flames. During six days devastation thus raged; on the seventh a deputation came from those in the citadel, offering a surrender, on condition of their lives being spared. Scipio consented, only excepting the deserters; and when all the rest had come out, these men retired to a temple in the highest part of the citadel, resolved to defend it to the last extremity. Hasdrubal, the Punic general, who at first had remained with them, had stolen away in the night and sought the clemency of Scipio. The Roman

made him sit at his feet in view of the temple ; and the deserters, when they beheld him, reviled and cursed him as a coward and a traitor, and then setting fire to the temple cast themselves into the flames and thus perished. It is added, that Hasdrubal's wife, whom he had left in the temple with her two children, advanced while it was burning arrayed in her richest garments, and addressing Scipio, cried out, "I blame not thee, O Roman, who hast warred against an enemy, but that Hasdrubal, a traitor to me, his children, his country and her temples, whom may the gods of Carthage and thou with them punish." Then turning to Hasdrubal, she exclaimed, "O wretched, faithless, and most cowardly of men, these flames will consume me and my children ; but what a triumph wilt thou adorn, thou, the general of mighty Carthage, and what punishment wilt thou not undergo from him before whom thou art sitting !" So saying, she slew her children, and cast them and herself into the flames.

As Scipio gazed on the ruins of that mighty city which had flourished for seven hundred years, had spread her commerce far and wide, had conquered so many countries, and made Rome tremble for her existence, he could not refrain

from tears, and he repeated these lines from Homer:

“The day will come when sacred Troy will fall,
And Priam, and strong-speared Priam’s people.”

When asked by one of his friends what he meant, he owned that he had his own country in view, and feared lest a similar doom might await it.

Scipio leveled what remained of Carthago, and pronounced a heavy curse on any one who should attempt to rebuild it. He triumphed on his return to Rome, and was thenceforth named Africanus.)

Treachery of Galba.—Viriáthus.

: Some years after, Scipio was again made consul in order to reduce a city in Spain, the courage and perseverance of whose inhabitants had baffled the efforts of several Roman commanders.

The Romans, from the time that the elder Africanus had driven the Carthaginians out of Spain, had on many occasions treated the people of that country in a harsh and tyrannic manner. Thus, for an example, when, in a war with the people of Lusitania (now called Portugal), a general named Galba had entered their country, and some of their tribes sent to him suing for

peace, he received the envoys with great kindness, affecting to pity the people, and offering to give them plenty of rich lands in exchange for the barren soil which they inhabited. The simple people, trusting to his promises, came down from their mountains to three places which he appointed for them in the plains. He came to one of these plains, and desiring those who were there to put away their arms as friends, he raised a rampart around them, marking out, as it were, their future town, and when it was completed he sent in his soldiers and massacred them all. He did the same at the other two places, and when prosecuted for it at Rome he was acquitted.

A Lusitanian named Viriathus, who was one of the few who escaped from the treachery of Galba, put himself at the head of his countrymen and made war on the Romans. By his military skill and knowledge of the country, and by his possessing the affections of the people, he was enabled to do the Romans much mischief; and he carried on the war against them with success for some years. He at length obliged one of the Roman consuls to conclude a peace with him on very advantageous terms; but the next consul broke the peace, and when Viriathus sent three of his

friends to him on the subject, the consul prevailed on them by gifts and promises to engage to assassinate him. It being Viriathus's custom to allow his officers access to his tent at all hours, the traitors went into it just at the time when he had fallen asleep, and killed him with one blow. They then fled to the consul, who sent them to claim their reward at Rome. Viriathus was magnificently interred by his countrymen, but they could not find any one to supply his place, and they were obliged to submit to the Romans.

Siege of Numantia.

The people of Numantia, a city situated in the present Old Castile, were the next object of attack to the Romans. Numantia was strong by nature, being built on a hill, which was nearly surrounded by the river Douro and another stream; and though it contained only eight thousand fighting men, they were all first-rate soldiers. The consequence was, that for many years the Romans were able to effect nothing against them, and on one occasion a Roman army of twenty thousand men only escaped destruction by its general concluding an honourable peace with the Numantines. But the senate, acting as usual, refused to ratify the peace,

and as in the similar case at the Caudine Forks, they ordered the general to be delivered up to the Numantines. These, like Pontius, refused to receive him, and thus to release the Romans from the guilt of breach of faith.

It was now resolved to commit the conduct of the Numantine war to Scipio Africanus, and for that purpose he was made consul a second time. When he came to Spain he found the troops in the same state as he had found the army in Africa some years before. He forthwith gave orders for all needless and improper persons to quit the camp; he directed that all the superfluous wagons and beasts of burthen should be sold; forbade the soldiers to use any food but plain boiled and roast meat, and made them sleep on the ground, himself setting them the example. He made them march and countermarch, dig trenches and fill them up again, build walls and throw them down; and when he had thus brought the army into an efficient state, he formed two camps close to Numantia, his intention being to starve the town into a surrender. He would therefore give the Numantines no opportunity of fighting; and he raised ramparts and towers on all sides of the town except where it was washed by

the Douro. To prevent provisions or information being brought in by boats or divers, he placed guards on the river above and below the town; and he let long beams of timber, in which were fastened swords and darts, and attached by ropes to the shore, float along the stream, which being very rapid, kept whirling them round and round, so that nothing could pass.

The brave Numantines made several fruitless attacks on the works of the Romans. At length, when famine began to be felt, and they were quite hopeless of relief, they sent offering to surrender if they could obtain moderate terms. Scipio insisted on unconditional surrender, and to this they would not yet submit. But the famine grew sorer every day, and they ate leather and various nauseous substances, and even, it is said, began to feed on human flesh. They then at last, according to one account, surrendered at discretion, while another says that they burned all their arms and property, and then destroyed themselves, and that Scipio took only the empty town.

CHAPTER IX.

Condition of the Roman People.

OWING to her long foreign wars, Rome had been for many years free from the seditions which had agitated her in the early days of the republic, but they were now to return and to continue till they had destroyed liberty, and converted the government into a despotism. They originated in the following manner.

The Licinian law respecting the public land had been totally neglected, and the nobles and men of wealth had obtained immense estates; and as the long wars had made slaves abundant, it being the barbarous custom of those times to make slaves of those taken in battle or in the storming of cities, and slave-labour was thought to come cheaper than that of freemen, they used to purchase whole gangs of them, and set them to work on their estates, treating them of course with great severity and often cruelty. So it *was* in the English West-India islands till the untiring humanity and noble generosity of the English nation caused the system to be abolished—an act of which the English people alone perhaps were capable. So it

is in the southern part of the United States of America, whose people pretend to be the greatest lovers of liberty, and the freest nation on the face of the earth.

The consequence of this state of things was, that the rural population of Italy, the frugal, industrious farmers, and the hardy, stout farm-labourers, the pride and strength of their country, and which no wise government will ever depress in order to encourage a turbulent, vicious town-population, was fast fading away: for when they lost their lands and could get no employment in the country, they were obliged to resort to Rome and live as they could, chiefly by selling their votes; it being one among the many evils of the time, that these men, who had no property, still had votes in the assembly; and it may be taken as a general rule, that the votes of pauper-electors will be given to the highest bidder.

Agrarian Law of Tiberius Gracchus.

The real lovers of their country could see no remedy for this evil but a return to the Licinian law; and Tiberius Gracchus, the grandson of the elder, the brother-in-law of the younger Scipio Africanus, being one of the tribunes, brought in

a bill for that purpose. The nobility gave all the opposition possible, and as any one of the tribunes had the power of stopping a measure, they gained over Octavius, one of his colleagues; and when Gracchus, after addressing the people, bade the clerk to read out his bill, Octavius stopped him, and though the people were enraged they could do nothing, as he had the law on his side. After making various fruitless attempts to induce Octavius to cease from his opposition, Gracchus had recourse to a most unconstitutional measure. He told him that one or other of them must be deprived of his office, and then bade him put the question of *his* deposition to the vote. When Octavius refused, Gracchus put the question, and Octavius was at once deposed by a vote of the people. Gracchus then carried his law without further opposition.

Murder of Gracchus.

As Gracchus at the end of the year would be only a private person, and the nobility made no secret of their intention of taking vengeance on him, his friends saw no chance for his security except in his being elected a tribune for the next year, though such a course was not usual. Ac-

cordingly Gracchus was among the candidates at the next election. On the first day there was a riot, caused either by the friends or the enemies of Gracchus, and the election was in consequence put off till the next morning. In the night, Gracchus and his friends came to a resolution to employ force if the nobles should attempt to impede the election, and the signal was to be Gracchus' putting his hand to his head.

Early in the morning the friends of Gracchus occupied the Capitol, where the election was to be held. They sent to summon him ; he came, and the election commenced. The nobles and their partisans began to disturb it ; Gracchus then gave the signal, and his friends, snatching their staves from the officers, broke them up, and falling with them on the opposite party, drove them off the ground. The priests then closed the doors of the temple ; some ran here, some there, some crying one thing, some another.

The senate was sitting in the temple of Faith, near the Forum ; and some of those that ran down from the Capitol came crying out that Gracchus was asking the people to make him king. Immediately Scipio Nasica the chief priest, and a great holder of the public land, called out to the consul

to do his duty and save the republic; and on his declining to have recourse to violence, Scipio, crying out, "Let all who will support the laws, follow me," rushed out, and throwing the skirt of his mantle over his head as a signal to his party, began to ascend the steps of the Capitol. Numbers of senators, knights, and others followed him; and when they got to the top they broke up the forms and benches, and began to lay about them on all sides. They slew about three hundred persons, among whom was Gracchus himself; and in the night the bodies of the slain were all flung into the Tiber.

Such was the fate of Tiberius Gracchus, and such the result of his well-meant efforts to improve the condition of his country. His bill, however, had passed, and the attempts made to carry it into effect gave occasion to new commotions and to new crimes.

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Death of Scipio Africanus.

Scipio Africanus was at this time in Spain, and it is said that when he heard of the fate of Gracchus, he cried out in the words of Homer, "So perish all who venture on such deeds!" On his return, when asked before the people what he

thought of the death of Gracchus, he replied that he was justly slain if he had a design of seizing on the government. The people then began to hoot at him, but he treated their clamours with contempt. As it was not the Roman nobles alone who would be affected by Gracchus's law,—for many of the people of Italy, honest, frugal and industrious husbandmen, would also lose their lands,—these last applied to Scipio to attend to their interests, and he exerted himself in their favour. One evening he went home from the senate in perfect health, intending to prepare during the night what he would say to the people next day. In the morning he was found dead in his bed, but without any marks of violence. No inquiry was instituted, and this distinguished man had only a private funeral, a thing quite unusual in the case of eminent persons at Rome. Various causes were assigned for his death; some said it was natural, some that he put an end to himself, others that he was murdered by his wife and her mother, others by the supporters of Gracchus's agrarian law; and this last opinion seems to be the most probable.

Caius Gracchus.

Gracchus had a brother named Caius, who was some years younger than himself, and who was a person of considerable ability. After the lapse of a few years Caius stood for the office of tribune, and such numbers of people flocked from all parts to vote for him, that the Forum could not contain them all, and many gave their votes from the house-tops. One of his first acts was to renew his brother's agrarian law; he also caused a law to be passed for selling corn to the people out of the public granaries at a very low price, and he introduced a variety of measures calculated to gain the popular favour. The nobility did all in their power to thwart him; and as he proposed admitting all the people of Italy to the privileges of the Roman citizens, the affection of the people cooled very much toward him, in consequence of which, when he stood for the tribuneship a second time, the nobles had influence enough to cause him to be rejected, and to have his bitter enemy Opimius chosen to be one of the consuls. They then prepared to have all the laws repealed which were made during his tribuneship. On the

part of Gracchus and his friends, it was resolved to resist the attempt by force.

Civil Tumults.—Death of C. Gracchus.

The first law selected for attack was one for planting a colony on the site of Carthage, which Scipio had devoted to be a waste for ever. When the day of voting on it came, both parties appeared on the area of the Capitol. The consul Opimius offered sacrifice according to custom, and as one of his lictors was carrying away the entrails of the victim, he cried to the Gracchians, "Make way, ye bad citizens, for the good!" They instantly fell on him and killed him. Opimius went down and assembled the senate, and they invested him with powers similar to those which the dictators used to exercise. He then directed the senators to arm themselves, and ordered the knights to appear next morning early, each attended by two armed slaves. Gracchus and his friend Fulvius also made preparations for defence during the night.

In the morning, Opimius, having occupied the Capitol with armed men, assembled the senate, and sent to summon Gracchus and Fulvius to appear before it; but they had retired to the Aven-

tine, Fulvius and his friends having armed themselves, while Gracchus was in his usual dress. They sent the younger son of Fulvius to the senate to propose an accommodation; but Optimus, who thirsted for blood, required unconditional submission, and on their hesitating he advanced against them with his armed men. They fled without making any resistance. Fulvius took refuge in a deserted bath, whence, being discovered, he was dragged out and put to death with his elder son. Gracchus went into the temple of Diana, and there attempted to put an end to his life; but two of his friends took the weapon from him and forced him to fly. It is said, that as he was leaving the temple he knelt down and prayed to the goddess that the Roman people, for their ingratitude to him, might be slaves for ever,—a prayer destined to be fulfilled! His pursuers pressing on him as he was crossing the bridge, his two friends turned and maintained it against them till they were both slain. He tried, but to no purpose, to get some one to furnish him with a horse; then seeing that escape was hopeless, he turned into an adjoining sacred grove, and there ordered a faithful slave, who had accompanied him, to slay him; the slave obeyed,

and then slew himself over the body of his beloved master. The heads of Gracchus and Fulvius were brought to Opimius, who had promised their weight in gold for them; and it is said that the person who brought the former had taken out the brains and filled it with lead to make it weigh the heavier. Upwards of three thousand persons had been slain by Opimius, and the bodies of all were flung into the river; their properties were confiscated, and their wives were even forbidden to put on mourning. When all was over, Opimius built a temple to Concord.

Jugurtha.

We have thus seen of what acts the Roman nobility were capable in the defence of their unjustly acquired property; we shall now see what injustice they could commit or sanction for the sake of money.

Micipsa, the son of Massinissa, king of Numidia, when dying left his kingdom to his two sons, Adherbal and Hiempsal, joining with them their cousin Jugurtha. This last, who was a young man of great ability, had commanded the troops which Micipsa sent to aid in the siege of Numantia; and some of the Roman nobles with

whom he was intimate there had advised him to seize the kingdom on the death of Micipsa, assuring him that money would do anything at Rome. Acting on this advice, he soon caused Hiempsal, the more spirited of the two princes, to be murdered, and he then drove Adherbal out of his part of the kingdom.

Adherbal repaired to Rome to seek for justice at the hands of the senate. Jugurtha, on his part, sent thither plenty of money, and the senate, instead of resolving to punish him, appointed Opimius and some others to go out and divide the kingdom of Micipsa between him and Adherbal! By gifts and promises to Opimius and his colleagues, he then managed to have the far more valuable half assigned him, and being now convinced that money was omnipotent at Rome, they were hardly gone when he invaded Adherbal's kingdom, and besieged him in one of his towns. Adherbal applied again to Rome; the senate twice sent out deputies, but Jugurtha would not even let them have access to Adherbal; and that prince being forced to surrender by the Italian traders in the town, he put him to death the moment he had him in his power, and then massacred all the inhabitants, the Italians included.

War with Jugurtha.

The partisans of Jugurtha at Rome, though they were strenuous in their efforts, were unable to gloss over such a deed as this, and war was declared against him. He, however, managed to bribe the consul who was sent to conduct it, and obtained a treaty of peace. But the indignation of the people was excited by one of the tribunes, and Jugurtha was required to come on the public faith to Rome to give evidence against those whom he had bribed. One of the tribunes, however, was gained over, and when Jugurtha was produced before the people he ordered him to be silent. While at Rome, Jugurtha caused another murder to be committed. The victim was a cousin of his own, who had applied to the senate for the kingdom of Numidia. He was murdered by a hired assassin, who, on being taken, said he had been engaged by Bomilcar, the confidant of Jugurtha. Bomilcar was seized; but on fifty of Jugurtha's Roman friends giving bail for his appearance, he was set at liberty, and Jugurtha instantly sent him away. He was himself ordered to quit Italy, and it is said that as he was going out of Rome, he turned, and gazing on it, said,

“Venal city, and soon to perish if a purchaser could be found!”

The war was renewed, and it was at first favourable to Jugurtha, who actually forced the Roman army to submit to pass under the yoke; but Metellus, the next consul, was a man of high character and inaccessible to bribery, and Jugurtha now thought of submitting in earnest; but Metellus turned his own arts against him, and he engaged the persons whom Jugurtha sent to him (even Bomilcar himself) to betray him. They however, were discovered, and Bomilcar was put to death. Metellus, finding that this course would not answer, carried on the war with vigour, and he had nearly conquered Jugurtha, when his own lieutenant, Marius, being appointed consul, came out to take the command.

Marius.—Captivity of Jugurtha.

Marius was the son of a peasant; he entered the army when young, and soon proved himself a good soldier. The people at length, though they only knew him by fame, appointed him to be a military tribune or colonel, and he afterwards attained to some of the higher civil offices of the state. The great object of his ambition was to

he consul; and as the people since the time of Gracchus had been exasperated against the nobility, he took advantage of that state of their feelings, and having obtained leave of absence from Metellus, he came to Rome and stood for the consulship. The zeal of the people in his favour was unbounded; the nobility were defeated, and he was chosen; and the people then, though it was contrary to law, assigned him the conduct of the war against Jugurtha.

Marius, on his arrival in Numidia, conducted the war with great vigour, and took some of Jugurtha's strong places. Among these was a castle standing on a solitary lofty rock in the midst of a plain. It was well supplied with men and provisions, had a good spring of water, and a single narrow path led up to its summit. Marius, having lost several of his best men before it, was thinking of retiring, when one day, a soldier, seeing some snails on the back part of the rock, climbed up to gather them, and going higher and higher as he saw them, he at length reached the summit. He then descended, carefully marking the way, and went and informed the consul. Marius immediately sent four companies and their trumpeters with the soldier, and while he amused

the garrison with a feigned attack, they climbed up to the top of the rock. The trumpeters then sounded, Marius urged on the attack, and the fort thus was taken.

Jugurtha was now aided by his father-in-law, the Moorish king Bocchus, but their united armies were twice defeated; and Sulla, one of Marius' officers, at length succeeded in inducing Bocchus to betray Jugurtha. This guilty prince was led a captive to Rome, where, having adorned the triumph of Marius, he was thrust nearly naked into a dungeon, where he was left to perish by hunger. As he entered it, "Ha!" said he, with a forced smile, "what a cold bath you have got!" He died on the sixth day.

Cimbrian War.

A new war awaited Marius, for which he was made consul a second time. The Cimbrians, or people of that part of Germany from which the Saxons came who conquered England, had resolved to migrate, and being joined by a people named the Teutons, they came in vast numbers into Gaul, where they defeated several Roman armies, and then moved into Spain. Marius led his army into Gaul, where the Teutons, on their

return from Spain, were preparing to enter Italy on the west, while the Cimbrians moved round the Alps to enter it on the east. He encamped on the banks of the river Rhone, and he refused all their challenges to battle. At length they resolved to leave him behind them and set out for Italy; and it is said that their numbers were so great that they were six days marching by the Roman camp; and as they passed they jeeringly asked the soldiers if they had any messages to send to their wives. Marius followed them; and at length bringing on an action in a favourable situation, he defeated them with immense slaughter.

Marius then hastened to the aid of his colleague C  tulus, who was hard pressed by the Cimbrians who had penetrated into Italy. The Roman generals gave them battle at a place named Vercell  . As it was the burning month of July, the Germans soon became faint with the heat, and unable to resist the Romans; and their front ranks having bound themselves together with chains, the slaughter was tremendous. It was the custom of these people to form a defence of their wagons, in which they placed their wives and children; and when the Romans drove them to this fence, the women rushed out and fell on

them, and then slew themselves and their children; the men also put an end to themselves in various ways; one hundred and twenty thousand perished, and half that number were made captives and sold for slaves.

CHAPTER X.

The Social War.—Marius and Sulla.

A CIVIL war, as we may term it, broke out shortly after in Italy. It was named the Social War, because it was carried on by the allies (in Latin *Socii*) against the Romans. The cause of it was the refusal to grant them the rights of citizenship which had been promised them by Gracchus. It lasted for two years, and after costing an immensity of blood, was ended by granting them all that they sought.

Sulla distinguished himself so much in the Social war that he was made consul, and appointed to conduct the war in Asia, where a powerful monarch, named Mithridátes, had caused eighty thousand Romans to be massacred, and seemed resolved to drive the Romans out of Asia.

But Marius, who had been already six times consul, and was now advanced in years, was jealous of Sulla, and anxious to get the command for himself; and by means of a tribune named Sulpicius, he got the people to transfer to him the task of conducting the Mithridatic war.

When Sulla, who was at Capua, informed his troops of what had occurred, they became furious, and insisted on his leading them to Rome. He entered the city at their head. Marius and Sulpicius, unable to resist him, were forced to fly, and Sulla remained absolute master of the city, being the first Roman who had ever entered it at the head of an army.

Adventures of Marius.

Sulpicius was betrayed by one of his slaves, and was immediately put to death; Marius escaped to Ostia at the mouth of the Tiber, where one of his friends had provided a ship for him. He got on board, but a storm soon after obliged him to land on another part of the coast; and while he and his companions were wandering about, some herdsmen, who knew him, informed him that a party of horse was there in quest of him. They concealed themselves in a wood,

where they passed the night without food. Next morning they continued their flight along the coast, when happening to look round, they saw some horsemen pursuing them; they instantly hastened and got on board of two vessels that were luckily lying close to the shore; the horsemen came and required the mariners to give up Marius, but they were moved by his entreaties and sailed away. Afterwards reflecting on the risk they ran, they persuaded him to land at the mouth of the river Liris to get food and repose; and while he was taking a sleep in the grass they departed, leaving him to his fate.

On awaking, Marius rambled about the marshes till he came to the solitary hut of an old man, whose compassion he implored. The old man led him away into the marsh, and making him lie down in a hollow spot, covered him with sedge and rushes. He then left him; and soon after Marius heard at the hut the voices of those who were in pursuit of him. Fearing that the old man would betray him, he stripped himself and went and stood up to his neck in the mud and water of the marsh; but he was discovered there, and dragged naked as he was to the nearest town. He was there placed in confinement; and the

magistrates of the place having consulted, resolved to put him to death. They sent a Cimbrian slave to despatch him. The Cimbrian, when he approached the spot where Marius was lying in a dark room, was daunted by the fiery glare of the old warrior's eyes ; and when he rose and cried with a tremendous voice, "Dost thou dare to slay Caius Marius?" he rushed out, crying, "I cannot kill Caius Marius." The magistrates then resolved not to have his blood on their heads ; and they put him on board a vessel, in which he passed over to Africa. He landed at Carthage ; but the governor of the province sent ordering him to depart. He sat in silence, looking sternly at the messenger ; and on his asking what answer he should make to the governor, he groaned and said, "Tell him you saw Caius Marius sitting an exile amidst the ruins of Carthage." He then retired to an island in the neighbourhood.

Cinna and Marius.

Sulla remained in Rome till after the consular elections ; and he was unable to prevent Cinna, a friend of Marius, from being chosen along with Octavius, one of his own friends. He tried, however, to bind Cinna by an oath in the ancient

form. They both ascended the Capitol, where Cinna, grasping a stone, flung it away, praying that if he did not keep his oath, he might in a similar manner be cast out of the city. Sulla then set out for Greece, and Cinna thought no more of his oath.

Cinna soon began to excite disturbance; Octavius drove him out of the city, and the senate pronounced his dignity of consul forfeited. He repaired to the army in Campania, which declared for him; he recalled Marius, and he soon became so strong, and distressed the city so much by cutting off its supplies, that the senate was obliged to send deputies to treat with him as consul. Beside the tribunal of Cinna stood Marius; he had never cut or trimmed his beard or hair since the day he was obliged to fly from Rome, and he now, in grim silence, brooded over plans of vengeance. When invited to enter the city, he replied ironically, that such was not permitted to exiles. The people were then assembled to vote his recall; but the voting had hardly commenced, when, impatient of delay, he flung off the mask and entered the city at the head of a band of slaves, who slaughtered all that he pointed out to them. To such a pitch did the bloodthirst and cruelty of

these ruffians at length ascend, that Cinna found it necessary to fall on them at night and massacre them all in their sleep.

Murders at Rome.

Marius and Cinna were resolved to let none of their own enemies or of the friends of Sulla escape. The consul Octavius was slain as he sat on his tribunal, and his head was cut off and brought to Cinna. Antonius, a great orator of the time, fled to the house of a peasant, by whom he was concealed; but the peasant thinking that he should have better fare than ordinary for so illustrious a guest, sent his slave to the tavern for wine of a superior quality to what he was in the habit of using. The host inquired the reason; the slave whispered it to him, and he instantly ran off to Marius with the information. Marius, who was at supper, clapped his hands with joy, and he was hardly withheld from going himself to seize his victim. He sent an officer with some soldiers, who, on coming to the house, stayed outside himself, while he sent his men in to slay Antonius; but he pleaded with such eloquence for his life, that they stood as if enchanted, till the officer, wondering at their delay, went in to learn the cause.

Eloquence had no effect on *him*; he cut off Ant^onⁱus' head and carried it to Marius. Catulus, whom Marius had never forgiven his having had a share in the Cimbric war, was obliged to have recourse to a voluntary death. He shut himself up in a room which had been newly plastered with lime, and burning charcoal in it, thus suffocated himself. One person seeing Marius about to offer sacrifice on the Capitol, and thinking that he might be in a merciful mood, went up to supplicate him; but Marius made the usual signal to his slaves, and they fell on and slew him. A man named Cornútus being one of those marked out for slaughter, his faithful slaves concealed him; and giving out that he was dead, they took the corpse of some other person and burned it, according to the custom, as his, and then conveyed him away to a place of safety.

Marius, at the end of the year, was made consul for the seventh time; but he died in the first month, while brooding over new projects of bloodshed and atrocity, happy in thus escaping the vengeance of Sulla. His successor in the consulship was a man named Carbo.

Victories of Sulla.

Sulla, having beaten the armies of Mithridates in Greece and forced that monarch to sue for peace, was now on his return with his army, flushed with victory and eager for vengeance. Cinna and Carbo raised troops to oppose him; but the former was killed in a mutiny by his own soldiers, and Carbo and his officers were everywhere defeated by the troops of Sulla. The son of Marius, after a defeat, fled to the town of Præneste, where the citizens, afraid to open their gates, drew him up by a rope over the walls. After sustaining a siege for some time, he attempted to make his escape by an underground passage; but he was seen as he was coming out of it, and was taken and put to death. A large army, chiefly composed of Samnites, advanced against Rome; Pontius the Samnite (a descendant of the general at the Caudine Forks), crying out, that "There never would be wanting wolves to ravage Italy if the wood that harboured them was not cut down." It was toward evening, in the month of November, that Sulla gave them battle before one of the gates of Rome, and the engagement lasted till late in the night. After

immense slaughter, the victory remained with Sulla. He collected six or eight thousand of his prisoners in a place near the senate-house; and while he was addressing the senators, their ears were assailed by the cries of the prisoners, whom the soldiers were massacring by his orders. They started from their seats; but he coolly told them that it was only some rebels whom he had directed to be punished, and bade them never to mind, but attend to what he was saying.

Sulla's Proscription.

Sulla now resolved to murder all the leading men of the opposite faction in a regular methodical manner. He *proscribed*, that is posted up in the Forum, the names of a great number of senators and knights, offering a large reward for the head of each; and forbidding any one, under pain of death, to give them shelter or aid them to escape. Presently the city was converted into one huge slaughter-house. In the streets were to be seen sons carrying the bleeding heads of their fathers, brothers those of their brothers, slaves those of their masters, to lay them before Sulla as he sat on his tribunal in the Forum. Many who had taken no part in politics were murdered

for the sake of their properties. Thus, one Aurelius, a quiet domestic man, reading the proscription list one day in the Forum, saw his own name in it. "Alas!" cried he, "my Alban estate has ruined me;" and he had hardly left the place when he was fallen on and murdered. Catilina, of whom we shall soon have occasion to speak again, slew his own brother, and then got Sulla to insert his name in the list. On the whole, it is said, nearly one hundred senators and more than two thousand knights were proscribed and murdered.

Death and Funeral of Sulla.

Sulla, having thus established the authority of the nobility, laid down his power and became a private citizen. He walked alone about the Forum, offering to account publicly for any of his actions, but no one ventured to accuse or to touch him. He then retired to a villa on the sea-side, where he employed his time in hunting and fishing, drinking and reveling, and in writing an account of his life. He was there attacked by an odious disease, in which vermin are produced in all parts of the body—the judgement of Heaven on him as one might perhaps venture to say—and he shortly after died.

It was the custom of Sulla's family to bury their dead; but as he had taken up the body of Marius, burnt it, and cast the ashes into the Tiber, he directed his own body to be burnt, lest it should hereafter be treated in a similar manner. It was carried to Rome on a golden bier, followed by horsemen and trumpeters. All the magistrates and all the priests, even the holy Vestals, came forth to meet it when the procession approached the city. The pile on which it was to be burnt was erected in the field of Mars. As the morning was lowering, the corpse was not brought out and laid on the pile till toward evening; fire was then set to the pile, a strong breeze sprung up, and the body was rapidly consumed; and then a copious rain fell, which extinguished the embers; so that, as was observed, Sulla's good fortune seemed to attend him to the last.

Sertorius.

After the death of Sulla, the peace that had been expected did not succeed. Sertorius, one of the friends of Marius and Cinna, had gone to Spain and put himself at the head of the Lusitanians, over whom he acquired unbounded influence. Among the arts which he employed to

gain their confidence, the following is the most celebrated. A hunter having given him a milk-white fawn, he tamed it so that it would come to him when called, and heeded not the noise and tumult of the camp. He pretended that it had been the gift of a deity, and that it was inspired, and could reveal to him distant or future events, and the simple people believed the tale.

Sortorius maintained the contest for eight years against the Roman generals, Metellus and Pompeius (or as he is commonly called Pompey) the Great, and he was only subdued at last by treachery. One of his officers, a Roman named Perperna, who had long been jealous of him, invited him to a banquet; and while Sortorius was suspecting nothing, Perperna gave the signal to his confederates by letting a goblet of wine drop from his lips, and he was fallen on and slain. Perperna then thought to take his place, but the Spaniards would not serve under him, and he was taken and put to death by Pompey, and the war in Spain was thus ended.

Spártacus.

The Romans had a barbarous custom of making men, called Gladiators, fight and slaughter one an-

other for the amusement of the people in the public theatres. There were men who made a trade of training gladiators in order to hire them out to magistrates and others who wished to entertain the people with shows, and for this purpose they used to purchase stout strong slaves, and keep them in schools, as they were termed. Campania, on account of the cheapness of provisions there, was the great seat of these schools; and in one of those, at Capua, the gladiators resolved to break out and make their way to their own country, or perish in the attempt. Their plot, however, being discovered, only about seventy of them were able to get out, and arming themselves with spits and cleavers from the adjoining cookshops, they broke open other schools and liberated those who were in them; and meeting a wagon laden with arms, they seized them, and thus armed themselves.

The place which the gladiators, whose number rapidly increased by the accession of slaves, selected for their stronghold was Mount Vesuvius, near Naples, which is now a volcano, sending up smoke and flame, but was then, as we have before observed, verdant and smiling, clad with wild vines and other shrubs and plants. They were there invested by a Roman army, which safely

guarded the only path that led down from the summit. But Spártacus, the commander of the gladiators, made them form ladders of the branches of the wild vine, by means of which they got down the steep side of the hill, and then falling suddenly on the Romans, they gave them a total defeat.

Such numbers of the slaves, employed on the estates of the Roman nobles, joined Spartacus, that he soon saw himself at the head of a considerable army, with which he gave the Romans several defeats; and had his followers taken his advice, they might all have reached their native homes in safety; but their thoughts were now all directed to plunder, and Spartacus could not restrain them. At length, when the war had lasted more than two years, the senate committed the conduct of it to the prætor Crassus, and Spartacus retired before him to the southern point of Italy, where he agreed with some Cilician pirates for the conveyance of himself and his men over to Sicily, where he hoped to be able to raise the slaves. But the faithless pirates took the money and then sailed away, leaving them to their fate; and Crassus, to prevent their escape, ran a ditch and wall, from sea to sea, behind them. Spartacus, however, taking advantage of a dark night,

made his way over this rampart; but soon after, in a general engagement, he fell fighting like a hero, and his men were all cut to pieces. Crassus took about six thousand prisoners, all of whom he hung on the trees which grew along the road from Capua to Rome.

The Piratic War.

Not long after his return from Spain, Pompey had to undertake the conduct of another war. The Cilician pirates, whom we have just mentioned, belonged to a great pirate- or buccancer-association, of which the chief seat was Cilicia, on the coast of Asia. These freebooters had large fleets, with which they sailed to all parts of the Mediterranean, plundering the coasts, robbing the temples and pillaging the towns. They used even to land in Italy and carry the senators and their families away from their country-seats, and keep them till they paid large ransoms. They also intercepted the corn-fleets, which supplied the city of Rome, and thus produced a scarcity almost amounting to famine.

Various Roman commanders had been sent against the pirates, but to little purpose, for the evil still continued. At length a law was passed

giving Pompey the command against them for a term of three years, with an immense fleet and army, and permission to take as much money as he pleased out of the treasury. He immediately commenced operations: he placed his lieutenants with divisions of ships in different parts of the Mediterranean; and when they had defeated the pirates or chased them to their strongholds in Cilicia, he himself set sail for that coast, and in forty-nine days from his leaving Italy, he had forced the pirates to submit to his mercy, and surrender their ships and arms; and the seas once more became safe.

CHAPTER XI.

The Mithridatic War.

POMPEY, whose ambition was not to be sated, next obtained authority to conduct the war against Mithridates, though it had been nearly brought to a conclusion by Lucullus, to whom it had been committed after the death of Sulla.

Lucullus having defeated Mithridates in several engagements, that monarch sought refuge with

his son-in-law Tigranes, king of Armenia, the most powerful monarch of the East. As Tigranes refused to give him up, Lucullus, though his army did not exceed fifteen thousand men, resolved to invade Armenia. The Roman legions now, for the first time, crossed the river Euphrates, and advanced even to the Tigris. Then turning northwards, Lucullus entered Armenia and marched for Tigranocerta, the capital. Tigranes was ignorant of his approach, for he struck off the head of the first person that brought him intelligence, as a spreader of false alarms. But when at length Lucullus had reached Tigranocerta, and laid siege to it, he became convinced that the Romans really were in Armenia, and he summoned troops from all parts of his empire to the relief of his capital.

The army of Tigranes numbered more than two hundred and fifty thousand men. With this force he advanced to the relief of Tigranocerta; yet, large as it was, Mithridates, who knew the Romans well, and their superiority over Asiatics, advised him not to hazard a general engagement, but to harass them and cut off their supplies. But the despot laughed this prudent counsel to scorn, and leaving the hills which he had occupied, descended into the plain on which Tigranocerta stood. When

he saw the Roman army, he cried out with contempt, "If they are come as ambassadors, they are too many; if as enemies, too few;" and he gave them battle without hesitation. But never was a victory more decisive or more easily won than that of the Romans. The king's troops made literally no resistance, and he was himself one of the very first to fly: for miles the ground was covered with the bodies of the slain, and with arms, garments and other spoils; and the Romans declared themselves ashamed of having employed their arms against such cowardly slaves. Tigranocerta surrendered, and the Romans were everywhere victorious.

While Lucullus was engaged in Armenia, Mithridates had returned to his own kingdom and defeated the Roman troops which had been left there. Lucullus was preparing to march against him, when he learned that the command was transferred to Pompey. The two Roman generals had an interview in a plain; they were at first very polite to each other, but finally Pompey reproached Lucullus with his avarice, and the latter retorted by likening his successor to those birds of prey that come to feed on the carcasses of those slain by others,—a charge which was true enough with regard to Pompey. They parted with mu-

tual ill-feeling ; Lucullus set out for Rome, Pompey prepared to prosecute the war.

Pompey in the East.

Mithridates, after a vain effort to obtain peace on reasonable terms, retired before the Romans, laying the country waste behind him. When Pompey entered Armenia, he came and encamped beside him, but still would give no opportunity of fighting. Both then set out for Tigranes' part of Armenia ; Mithridates, who had the start, marched by night and encamped by day ; and Pompey at length, by taking advantage of the midday reposes of the enemy, got on before them, and posted his troops on two hills through the narrow glen between which their next night's march lay. At nightfall Mithridates' troops set out, suspecting no danger ; it was perfectly dark when they entered the glen ; suddenly they heard the sound of the Roman trumpets over their heads, and the clashing of arms, and the shouts of the soldiers. A shower of arrows, darts and stones succeeded, and then the Romans fell on them sword in hand. The slaughter was great and promiscuous, for in the dark no one could discern friend or foe. The moon at length rose,

but it also favoured the Romans by shining behind their backs and lengthening their shadows, so that the missiles of the enemy fell short.

Mithridates now fled to the country beyond the Euxine sea, and Pompey, having founded a city to commemorate his victory, entered the dominions of Tigranes. That once haughty monarch, whose own son was now in arms against him, thought not of resistance. Laying aside the ensigns of his dignity, he came as a suppliant to the Roman camp; he was about to enter it, after the eastern custom, on horseback, when a licitor came to meet him, and informed him that the Roman camp-discipline did not admit of such a practice, and he was forced to alight and advance on foot to Pompey's tribunal. He cast himself on the ground; the Roman general raised and consoled him. He treated him with kindness and respect, and secured him in the possession of his dominions.

Pompey next reduced the Albanians, the Iberians and other tribes of Mount Caucæsus to sue for peace. He then directed his course southwards to Syria, which he formed into a Roman province, and being called on to interfere in a quarrel between two brothers for the high-priest-

hood at Jerusalem, he came and laid siege to the Holy City. The Jews defended themselves bravely for the space of three months, till Pompey, learning that they would not fight on their Sabbath, and selecting that day for attacking the walls, at length took the city by storm. Curiosity led him to enter the Holy of Holies in the temple, but he took away none of the sacred treasure.

Pompey had intended attempting the conquest of Arabia, but intelligence of the death of Mithridates caused him to give up that design. This king, who was grown more suspicious and cruel than heretofore, had put some of his sons to death, and one of the survivors, named Pharnaces, fearing for himself, conspired against him. The old monarch sent some of his guards to seize the rebel; but, instead of doing so, they joined him. Mithridates then asked permission to depart; but it was refused. He then retired into the palace, and taking the poison which he always had ready, he gave part of it to his two daughters who were with him, and swallowed the remainder himself. The princesses died immediately but his own body had been so fortified, it is said, with antidotes, that the poison took little effect. He then implored a Gaul who was in his service to save

him from the disgrace of being led in triumph, and the Gaul ran him through with his sword,

'Pompey returned to Rome after having achieved the conquest of the East. All kinds of honours were bestowed on him, and he celebrated a most magnificent triumph.

Catiline's Conspiracy.

While Pompey was absent in the East, a horrible conspiracy was detected and punished at Rome.

Catilina, or, as we commonly call him, Catiline, whom we have seen as the murderer of his own brother in the time of Sulla, was a man of the most abandoned character. He is also charged with taking away the life of his own son, and with various other enormities. His circumstances were desperate, and he saw no remedy for them but in a renewal of the scenes of bloodshed and robbery in which he had borne his part in the days of Sulla. With this view he entered into a conspiracy with some other men of rank and birth, whose affairs were in the same state as his own. They were to exert all their influence to have him made consul, and he was then to act as Sulla had done. It is said that they bound themselves by a

dreadful oath, drinking wine with which human blood was mingled.

Among the conspirators was a man named Cilius, who was engaged in a love-affair with a lady named Fulvia. He had been rather slighted by her of late, because he was not able to make her presents on account of his poverty; but now his tone became quite altered, he would behave to her with the greatest insolence, and boast of the great wealth of which he would soon be possessed. She was curious to know what could have caused this change, and she never ceased till she had drawn the secret from him; she then told her friends what she had learned, but without naming her author.

The nobility, finding that there existed a plot for their destruction, grew seriously alarmed. Hitherto they had opposed Cicero the great orator in his suit for the consulship, because he was not one of their order; but now, aware that he was the only man able to baffle Catiline, they gave him their interest, and he was elected and Catiline rejected. Cicero soon, by means of Fulvia, gained over Curius, and he was thus informed of all the plans of the conspirators.

After some time, Catiline, finding all his pro-

jects frustrated by the vigilance of the consul, left Rome and went to join an army which he had caused to be assembled in Tuscany. When going, he charged his confederates, Léntulus, Cethégus, and others to gain over as many persons as they could, to murder Cicero and other men of rank, and to set fire to the city in different parts, and then to break out and join him and his army.

There happened to be ambassadors at Rome from a people in Gaul named the Allóbroges, and Lentulus, thinking it would be of advantage to gain over this people, who could supply them with troops, caused application to be made to them. They at first readily agreed ; but on thinking more coolly of the matter, they went and told it to one of the senators. He informed Cicero, by whose directions they pretended a great zeal for the plot, in order to get all the information they could. Cicero also directed them to require a letter to their nation, with the seals of the principal conspirators.

When they had gotten all that they required, they set out at night on their return home. At a bridge over the Tiber, a few miles above Rome, they were fallen on and seized by the troops which Cicero had placed there in ambush. They were

brought back and led before the senate, where they told all that they knew, and the conspirators who had been arrested were forced to acknowledge their seals. Lentulus, who was actually prætor at the time, was made to lay down his office, and all were given into custody to different senators. A few days after, when it appeared that Lentulus and Cethegus were exerting themselves to induce the slaves and the rabble to rise and rescue them, Cicero laid the matter before the senate, and it was resolved that they should be executed as traitors. That very evening Cicero conducted Lentulus, Cethegus, and three others to the public prison, and caused them to be strangled. When he came out, as several of their confederates were in the Forum, he said, "They have lived;" *i. e.* they are dead. The people then gave a loose to their joy, calling him the saviour of the city: lights were set at the doors in all the streets, and the women stood on the roofs of the houses to gaze on him as he passed.

Cicero's colleague Antonius led an army against Catiline, and the rebel and his men fell fighting with a valour worthy of a better cause.

CHAPTER XII.

The Triumvirate.—Cæsar in Gaul.

THERE were at this time in Rome three eminent men ; namely, Pompey, of whom we have had occasion to speak so much ; Crassus, the conqueror of Spartacus and the richest man in Italy ; and Julius Cæsar, who in talents far exceeded all others, but whose ambition nothing could satisfy but the dominion over the whole Roman empire. Cæsar being consul, proposed to Pompey and Crassus that they three should enter into a secret league for their mutual advantage, and thus contrive to govern the state without its being known. They agreed, not perceiving that he intended them to be nothing more than his tools, and their association was named a Triumvirate, as they were three in number. To strengthen their union, Cæsar gave his daughter Julia, a most amiable and beautiful young lady, in marriage to Pompey, though he was an older man than himself ; yet Julia loved him most devotedly, for Pompey was the kindest and most affectionate of husbands.

. After the expiration of his consulship, Cæsar obtained the government of the Roman province

in Gaul, and in the course of eight or nine years he conquered the whole of that country. He crossed the Rhine and invaded Germany, and he even ventured to land his legions in the isle of Britain, which the Romans considered as lying without the limits of the habitable world. Cæsar embarked at midnight at a place now called Boulogne, and at nine next morning he reached Dover; but as the cliffs were guarded by Britons, he sailed on to Deal, where he landed in the evening. He did not advance far into the country; but the next year he returned, and having defeated the Britons, he crossed the Thames near Hampton Court, and advanced into Middlesex and took the chief town of the people named the Trinobantians; but his affairs did not permit him to remain in Britain, and his conquest of it therefore was merely nominal.

Parthian War of Crassus.

While Cæsar was engaged in the conquest of Gaul, Crassus was urged by his avarice to attempt the conquest of the East. When his intentions became known, many, from different motives, opposed them, and as he was departing one of the tribunes ran before him to the city-gate, and

kindling a fire on a portable altar, poured wine and incense on it, and pronounced direful curses on Crassus; but undismayed by the curses of the tribune or the terrors of the sea, which was rough and stormy, Crassus embarked and passed over to Grecco, and thence proceeded to Asia.

The people on whom Crassus was going to make war were named the Parthians. They possessed the whole of Persia, and the conquests of Lucullus and Pompey had caused them and the Romans to be neighbours. They had, however, given no cause of offence, and when Crassus had committed some acts of hostility they sent ambassadors to complain; but he made a boastful reply, saying that he would give his answer in Seleucia, the Parthian capital; at which the eldest of the envoys laughed, and showing the palm of his hand, said, "Crassus, hairs will grow there before *you* see Seleucia."

Crassus was advised by those who knew the country and the Parthian mode of fighting, to march through Armenia, which was hilly and unsuited to cavalry; but he would not heed them, and declared his resolution to go the direct road through Mesopotamia, whose barren level plains would afford every advantage to the Parthian

cavalry. As he was crossing the Euphrates, thunder roared and lightning flashed, and other signs of ill omen appeared; but blinded as it were by Destiny, he would heed neither these warnings nor the advice of his officers, and he pursued his march for some time along the left bank of the river.

One of his officers, named Cassius, then advised him to keep to the river till he reached the point where it was nearest to Seleucia, which stood on the river Tigris. But it was the object of the Parthians to draw him away from the river, and with that view they got an Arab chief who had been intimate with Pompey to go to him and tell him that they were so terrified at his approach that they were collecting all their most valuable property in order to fly to the countries about the Caspian sea, and that he therefore should make all haste to prevent them. Crassus, believing him, quitted the river, and with the Arab for his guide, proceeded over the plain; but when the Arab had brought him to the place arranged with the Parthians, he rode off, pretending that he did it for the benefit of the Romans, and he returned no more.

That very day a party of the Roman horse fell in with the Parthians and were cut to pieces.

This event, so contrary to his expectations, perplexed Crassus, but he still advanced, and at length he came in sight of the enemy; but the Suréna or Parthian general kept the greater part of his troops out of view, and those whom he let be seen had their armour covered to deceive the Romans. All of a sudden they began to beat their numerous kettle-drums, and when they thought that this unusual sound had daunted the invaders, they flung off their coverings and appeared glittering in helmets and corselets of steel, and then pouring around the Roman army, which was in one solid mass, they showered their arrows thick as hail. Crassus ordered his son at the head of the cavalry and light troops to charge and drive them off. The Parthians feigned a flight to draw them on, and when they were at a sufficient distance from the main army, they turned and assailed them, riding round and round, and raising such a dust that they could not see to defend themselves. Young Crassus, with a part of the horse, broke through and reached an eminence, where they tried to defend themselves. Crassus, being wounded, made his shield-bearer kill him; and the Parthians, having taken or slain all the remainder, cut off his head and set it on a spear.

Crassus was advancing to the relief of his son, when he again heard the rolling of the Parthian drums, and soon he beheld the head of that unfortunate youth. The troops now lost all spirit; he tried in vain to rouse them, crying that the loss was his and not theirs; his efforts were vain, and he himself soon gave way to despair and shut himself up in his tent. Cassius and the other officers then consulted, and it was determined to attempt a retreat that very night, though they must abandon their camp with the sick and wounded, four thousand in number. The cries of those left behind informed the Parthians of their flight; but it not being their custom to fight at night, they remained quiet till the morning, when they took the camp and slaughtered all that were in it. The Romans meantime had reached a place where they had a garrison: the Surena, fearing that they might escape, sent proposals of peace; but finding that he was only deceiving them, they set out again the next night; but their treacherous guide led them among marshes and ditches, and it was with difficulty that they contrived to reach a secure position among the hills. The Surena now sent some of his prisoners to them to let them know that he was willing to

grant terms, and he himself with his officers rode with their bows unbent to the foot of the hill, inviting Crassus to come down and treat with him. The soldiers forced Crassus to comply, though against his will, for he knew that no faith could be placed in the Parthians. He went down, attended by his principal officers; he was received with marks of the greatest respect, and a horse was brought for him to mount; but the Parthians soon contrived to pick a quarrel, and killed him and all his companions. They cut off his head and right hand, and it is said that they poured melted gold down his throat in reproach of his avarice. The troops, about ten thousand in number, were forced to surrender. Cassius, with a body of five hundred horse, made his escape over the Euphrates. Such was the end of this ill-advised expedition.

War between Pompey and Cæsar.

The death of Crassus put an end to the triumvirate; Julia was also dead, and there remained nothing to check the ambition of Pompey and Cæsar, of whom the former could not bear an equal, nor the latter a superior. Cæsar was now at the head of a veteran army, trained in the

Gallic wars, and entirely devoted to him ; and he refused to disband it unless he were made consul again ; to this the senate and Pompey refused to consent, and he resolved to appeal to arms.

From the time that the Gauls had crossed the Alps and made themselves masters of the north of Italy, that country had been named Gaul. It was called Cisalpine Gaul, that is, Gaul on this side of the Alps, to distinguish it from the original Gaul beyond those mountains. The boundary between it and Italy, properly so called, was a stream named the Rúbicon, and any general who passed the Rubicon in arms was held to be an enemy to his country. Cæsar was at Ravenna, in Cisalpine Gaul, when he heard of the proceedings against him at Rome. He assembled his soldiers and made his complaint to them : they assured him of their fidelity, and he sent them on toward Italy. As for himself he passed the day in viewing the exercises of the gladiators, and in the evening he sat down to dinner as usual. When it grew dark he rose and went out, telling the company that he would return presently ; but he mounted a hired horse and set off after his troops. On coming to the Rubicon he halted, and pondered on the consequences of the step he was about to take. After

consulting for some time with his friends, he cried, "Let the die be cast!" and he crossed the bridge. His troops followed, and he took possession of the town of Rimini.

The towns and troops everywhere submitted to Cæsar. Pompey, who in his self-confidence had said, that wherever he should stamp with his foot legions would rise up, found himself wofully deceived in his expectations; and he was obliged to quit Italy and pass over to Greece in the hope of being able to carry on the war with the aid of the princes of the East. Cæsar then resolved to proceed to Spain, where Pompey's lieutenants Afranius and Petreius were at the head of an army. He previously went to Rome, where he seized all the money that was in the treasury. In this act he was opposed by one of the tribunes; but he laid his hand on his sword, and threatened to kill him; and, "Know, young man," added he, "that this is easier to do than to say."

In Spain he found Afranius and Petreius encamped on an eminence between two rivers, at the modern city of Lérida. After a variety of actions and manœuvres they found it necessary to quit that position and march for the river Ebro; but Cæsar, by his celerity, got between them and

that river, and forced them to encamp on a hill, round which he drew lines and cut them off from water and forage, so that at last they were obliged to surrender. He only required them to disband their troops and quit Spain, and he himself returned to Rome, where he was made dictator.

Cæsar now prepared to follow Pompey to Greece. Though the latter had a great fleet in the Adriatic sea, Cæsar, whose shipping was but trifling, contrived to get across with a part of his troops to Epirus, and he then sent the ships back for the remainder. But Pompey's commanders were now on the alert, and they could not venture to stir. Cæsar then resolved to run all risks, and go himself to fetch them. One night he disguised himself as a slave, and embarked in a fishing-boat on the river near his camp; but when the boat had reached the mouth of the river, the sea proved so rough and stormy, that the boatmen, after making an attempt to go out, put back. Cæsar then discovered himself to the master, saying, "Why dost thou fear? thou carriest Cæsar!" They then made another attempt, but the storm was so great that he was obliged to let them return.

Battle of Pharsalia.

The troops, however, soon got over and joined him. Pompey, who had arrived with his army to oppose him, having gained the advantage in an action which occurred, Cæsar resolved to quit the coast, and he set out for Thessaly, followed closely by Pompey. They both entered that country about the same time, and they encamped opposite each other, near the town of Pharsalia.

Pompey's infantry, without reckoning the light troops, was double that of Cæsar in number, and his cavalry was seven times as numerous as his; but Cæsar's men were veterans, while Pompey's were mostly recruits. Aware of the inferiority of his troops in quality, Pompey wished to avoid an action; but he was not, like his rival, a free agent, for he was controlled by the senators who were in his camp, and who, confident of victory, insisted on his giving battle. Cæsar, weary of delay, was one day preparing to decamp, when to his surprise and joy he saw Pompey's army drawn up in battle array, at the foot of the hill on which their camp lay. As it was on his cavalry that Pompey chiefly relied, Cæsar mixed some of his most active foot-soldiers through his own cavalry, and he placed a part of his troops in re-

serve, with directions to fall on the enemy's horse when they should see them engaged, and to be sure to strike at their faces. This stratagem succeeded; the handsome young horsemen, more solicitous about their beauty than about their honour and reputation, turned and fled; and then these troops, falling on the rear of Pompey's left wing, where were his best troops, and where he himself commanded, threw them into confusion, and they fled to their camp. Pompey, seeing the battle lost, retired to his tent; and when he found that Cæsar was attacking his camp, he mounted his horse and left it with about thirty followers. When Cæsar took the camp, he found the tents of the principal men hung with ivy, with fresh turfs cut for seats, tables covered with plate, and all the preparations for celebrating a victory. In the battle he had cried out to his soldiers to spare the blood of their fellow-citizens, but notwithstanding a great number were slain. All the remainder surrendered, and most of them entered his service.

Death of Pompey.

Pompey rode without halting till he reached the romantic vale of Tempe, through which the

river Peneús leaves Thessaly, and discharges its waters into the sea. At the mouth of that river hé found a merchant-ship, in which he embarked, and sailed to the isle of Lesbos, where he had left his wife Cornelia. Having taken her on board, he proceeded to the isle of Cyprus, where he consulted with his friends as to whether he had better seek an asylum with the king of the Parthians ; or go to Africa, where Juba, king of Numidia, was in arms against Cæsar ; or repair to the young king of Egypt, whose father he had restored to his throne. This last course was the one fixed on, and they made sail for Egypt.

On approaching the coast they saw an army encamped there, headed by the king himself, who was at war with his sister Cleopátra. When Pompey sent to implore his protection, his ministers held a consultation as to what were best to be done, and the conclusion to which they came, was that it would be most for their own interest, and that of their king, to put him to death, and thus recommend themselves to the favour of Cæsar. They accordingly sent Achilles, a captain of the guard, with a Roman officer named Septimius, and some others, in a small boat to invite him to enter it and land, as the shore was

too oozy and shallow to allow a ship to approach it. He consented, and followed by two officers and two attendants, having embraced Cornelia, he entered the boat, and then turning round, repeated two verses of the tragic poet Sóphocles. They went on for some time in silence; at length Pompey, turning to Septimius, said, "If I mistake not, you and I have been fellow-soldiers." He nodded assent; the silence was resumed, and Pompey began to read over what he had prepared to say to the king. When they reached the shore several of the royal officers were seen coming down to receive him; he took hold of his freedman's arm to rise from his seat. As he was rising Septimius stabbed him in the back; Achilles and another then struck him; he drew his mantle before his face, groaned, and died in silence. A loud cry rose in his ship, which then fled, followed by some of the Egyptian vessels. Pompey's head was cut off and kept as an offering for Cæsar; his trunk was thrown on the beach, where his faithful freedman stayed by it, and having washed it in the sea, prepared a pile to burn it from the wreck of a fishing-boat. While he was thus engaged, an old Roman, who had served under Pompey, came up and joined him in his pious

office, saying, "that the honour of assisting at the funeral of Rome's greatest general compensated him in some measure for the evils of an abode in a foreign land."

CHAPTER XIII.

Cæsar in Egypt,—Mutiny of the Legions.

CÆSAR arrived soon after in Egypt. The head and ring of Pompey were presented to him; he shed tears over them, and caused the head to be burnt with costly spices. He then set about regulating the affairs of Egypt; and as Cleopatra, by her charms, and her talents and accomplishments, soon gained complete influence over him, the ministers of the young king, expecting that Cæsar would decide to his disadvantage, resolved, as he had very few troops with him, to attack and conquer him. He was now in the city of Alexandria, occupying the quarter in which the palace stood, and he had great difficulty to maintain it against them. On one occasion, in an engagement in the harbour, he found himself obliged to jump into the water and swim to a ship for safety; and

it is said, that while swimming, he held his papers in one hand over the water to preserve them from being wetted. At length he was joined by more troops, and he gave the Egyptian defeat on the banks of the Nile; and their king, in trying to effect his escape, was drowned in the river. Cæsar then gave the crown to Cleopatra, by whom he had a son; he joined with her her youngest brother, but she possessed all the real power.

Cæsar now marched against Pharnaces, the son of Mithridates, who was trying to recover all his father's dominions. One battle ended the war. "I came, I saw, I conquered," were the terms in which Cæsar announced his victory at Rome.

On his return to Italy Cæsar was preparing to pass over to Africa, where a new war awaited him, when a mutiny broke out in the troops which were quartered in Campania, and they marched to Rome, plundering the country on their way. They occupied the Field of Mars: Cæsar, against the wishes of his friends, went out to them, and mounting his tribunal, asked them what had brought them thither, and what it was that they wanted. They spoke of their discharge, and of the rewards he had promised them. "I give you your discharge," said he, "and when I shall have

triumphed with other soldiers, I will give you the promised bounty." He rose and was retiring, when his officers stopped him, and begged that he would speak to the men again, and with less severity. He then addressed them, calling them Citizens, and not Fellow-soldiers; this they could not endure; they cried out that they were his soldiers, and would follow him to the end of the world. He finally forgave them, and though it was now winter, he passed over with them to Sicily.

African War.—Death of Cato.

Most of the Roman leaders who had escaped from Pharsalia, had retired to Africa, where they were joined by king Juba, and they had assembled a numerous army. They had at first some success against Cæsar, but he at length gave them a total overthrow near the town of Thapsus. Some of them then fled to Spain, others were taken and put to death. Juba, finding the gates of his own capital closed against him, retired to a farm-house, where he and Petreius attempted to kill each other. Petreius died at once; but Juba, being only slightly wounded, was obliged to get his slave to despatch him.

The government of the important town of

Útica had been committed to Cato, one of the most distinguished Romans of that time, a zealous republican, and a personal enemy to Cæsar. Finding that the people of the town were resolved on a surrender, he adopted the resolution of securing himself against captivity and disgrace by a voluntary death, for the Greeks and Romans in general did not esteem self-murder to be unlawful. His only concern was for the senators and other Romans who were in the place; and he made all the necessary arrangements for their escape by sea. When all was ready, he went down to the port and saw them safe off; he then settled all his accounts, and in the evening he bathed as usual, and sat down to supper with his friends, at which meal he discussed philosophic subjects in his ordinary manner. He then took a walk and retired to his chamber, where missing his sword, which his son, suspecting his design, had caused to be removed, he called for it in an angry tone, and made it be brought back. Having read carefully over one of the dialogues of the Greek philosopher Plato, which treats of a future state and the immortality of the soul, he lay down and slept soundly for some hours. Toward morning he drew his sword and stabbed himself. He fell to

the ground; his son and his friends, hearing the noise of his fall, ran into the room; and his surgeon went to bind up the wound, but he thrust him from him, tore it open, and instantly expired.

Battle of Munda.

When the African war was concluded, Cæsar returned to Rome, where all kinds of honours were heaped on him by the senate. He celebrated four splendid triumphs for Gaul, Egypt, Pharnaces, and Juba. He entertained the people with all kinds of shows, and he distributed money, corn, and oil among them in great quantities. He also rewarded his soldiers with money and grants of land.

Meantime, Pompey's two sons, and those who had escaped from Africa, had collected a large army in Spain, and driven away Cæsar's commander in that country. Cæsar, deeming his own presence there to be necessary, set out, and travelled with such speed, that in twenty-seven days he arrived in the south of Spain. After various movements, the two armies came to an engagement on the plains of Munda in the modern kingdom of Granada. It was the most hard-fought battle that Cæsar had ever been in,

and he was at one time so near losing it, that he was about to put an end to his life. He alighted from his horse, took a shield, and advancing before his men, declared that he would never return. This act roused them to greater exertion, and at length he gained a complete victory. Most of the opposite leaders fell in the battle; one of the Pompeys fled to his fleet and put to sea, but Cæsar's admiral pursued him and burned several of his ships when he had been obliged to land in order to get in water. Being wounded in the action, he fled from place to place, till at length he was discovered in a cavern, in which he had taken shelter, and he was slain, and his head cut off and brought to Cæsar. His brother escaped to the mountains.

Cæsar at Rome.

Cæsar triumphed on his return to Rome, to the grief of the people, for it was the first triumph ever celebrated for a victory gained over Roman citizens. He then began to prepare for making war on the Parthians, that, like Alexander the Great, he might become the conqueror of the East. But not content to be the absolute master of the Roman world, he coveted the title as well

as the power of a king, and he tried in various ways to obtain it from the people. Thus, one day, some one placed a diadem and a crown of laurel on one of his statues; two of the tribunes, however, put the man into prison, at which the people expressed their joy. Cæsar then commended the tribunes, but he took care soon after to deprive them of their office. Another time, as he was returning to Rome from the Alban Mount, some voices in the crowd called him king; but seeing that the people were not pleased, he said aloud, "I am Cæsar, not king." But the great attempt was reserved for the time of the Lupercalia, a festival which took place in the month of February, in which it was the custom for the Luperci, as the members of that religious association were named, to run nearly naked all through the city, slashing those whom they met with thongs made of goatskin. On that day Marcus Antonius (or, as he is vulgarly called, Mark Antony), Cæsar's colleague in the consulship, being one of the Luperci, ran up to him as he was sitting in state in the Forum, and placed a diadem on his head. A few hired voices in the crowd applauded; Cæsar rejected it, and a general shout of approbation was raised; Antony again offered the diadem.

Cæsar again put it aside, and the multitude shouted as before. Cæsar then seeing that the project would not succeed, ordered the diadem to be placed on the statue of Jupiter, as being the only king of the Romans.

Death of Cæsar.

It would seem to have been this desire for the royal title that cost Cæsar his life. The Romans had an hereditary hatred of the title of king, and in the old times there was no surer way to destroy a man than to charge him with aiming at it ; there was also an ancient law authorising any one who pleased to kill the man who should attempt to make himself a king. A conspiracy, therefore, was formed against Cæsar, in which not less than sixty persons were engaged, mostly all his own friends, who, though they willingly aided in making him the real master of his country, could not endure that he should bear the title of King of the Romans. But the two principal conspirators were Brutus and Cassius, whom, though they had fought on the side of Pompey against him, Cæsar had forgiven and had treated with so much favour, that they were both of them at the time prætors at Rome. Brutus was the nephew

of Cato, to whose daughter Porcia he was married. Cassius we have seen acting under Crassus in his unfortunate war against the Parthians.

The day fixed on for performing the deed was the Ides (that is the 15th) of March, when the senate was to be held in the senate-house which Pompey had built in the Field of Mars. It is said that Cæsar got warning, but that he replied that he had lived long enough, and that he would sooner die at once by treachery than live in constant apprehension of it. It is also said that a soothsayer named Spurinna had warned him to beware of the Ides of March.

The fatal day came. Brutus and Cassius in the morning took their seats in the Forum to administer justice as usual; they had their daggers concealed beneath their mantles. The senate assembled, but Cæsar did not appear, for he had been rather unwell, and as his wife had had what she deemed ominous dreams, to gratify her he was thinking of not going to the senate that day. But Décimus Brutus, one of the conspirators, came to him, and deriding such fancies, induced him to ascend his litter and set out. As they proceeded Spurinna met them. "Well," said Cæsar, "the Ides of March are come." "Yes," replied he; "but

they are not past." A Greek philosopher then met him, and handing him a paper containing a full account of the plot, bade him read it immediately; but he took no heed, and went into the senate-house with the paper unopened in his hand. When he took his seat the conspirators gathered round him; one of them began to plead for the pardon of his brother who was in exile; the others joined in the suit; Cæsar appeared annoyed at their importunity; one of them then gave the appointed signal by laying hold on his mantle and pulling it off his shoulder. "This is violence," cried Cæsar. Another then drew his dagger and stabbed him under the throat; he rose and rushed forward, but another and another dagger struck him; then thinking only of dying with dignity, he drew his mantle around him, and fell, pierced by three-and-twenty wounds, at the foot of Pompey's statue. Brutus was then going to address the senators, but they fled out of the house in dismay.

Cæsar's Funeral.

As it was uncertain how the people might act, the conspirators retired to the Capitol. The body of Cæsar was left lying in the senate-house till three of his slaves placed it in the litter and car-

ried it home. After some time, Antony, as consul, assembled the senate, and Cicero proposed an amnesty or act of oblivion, which was agreed to, and the conspirators came down from the Capitol. It was also agreed that Cæsar should have a public funeral.

When Cæsar's will was opened, it was found that he had left a sum of money to each individual citizen, and had bequeathed to their use in general his gardens on the banks of the Tiber. The minds of the people being favourably disposed by this intelligence, the funeral took place. A small temple adorned with gold was erected in the Forum in front of the Rostra, in which Cæsar's body was placed, lying on an ivory couch; the mantle which he had on when slain was hung over it. Antony, who was to deliver the funeral-oration, ascended the Rostra. Having directed the decrees made by the senate in Cæsar's honour, and the oaths they had taken to defend his life at the hazard of their own, to be read, he proceeded to address the people on the conduct of the senate, and, it is said, by pointing to the blood-stained mantle, and by enumerating Cæsar's benefits to themselves, excited them to avenge his death. As the body was to be burnt in the Field

of Mars, the magistrates and those who had borne office under Cæsar advanced to take it up to convey it thither ; but the multitude would not suffer them, some crying that it should be burnt in the temple of Jupiter on the Capitol, others, in the senate-house where he was slain. Suddenly two armed soldiers advanced bearing lighted torches, and set fire to the bier ; the crowd then broke up the seats and threw on everything else that came to hand to feed the flame ; the musicians and players flung their drosses, the veterans their arms, the women their own and their children's ornaments on the pile, and thus was the body of the mighty Cæsar consumed.

CHAPTER XIV.

Octavius Cæsar.

THE conspirators now found it necessary to leave the city. Antony, who had obtained possession of Cæsar's papers and money, did as he pleased, till Cæsar's nephew and adopted son and heir, the young Octavius, came to Rome to claim his inheritance. His uncle's veterans supported him,

and the senate united with him in the hope of destroying Antony. Finding Cæsar, as we shall henceforth call Octavius, too strong for him, Antony quitted Rome, and went with his troops to Cisalpine Gaul, where he besieged Decimus Brutus, the governor of that province, in the town of Mútina (now called Módena). Cæsar and the two consuls, Hirtius and Pansa, marched to the relief of Brutus, and they defeated Antony, and forced him to fly beyond the Alps. Hirtius and Pansa were, however, both slain, and the sole command remained with Cæsar.

Cæsar, it is said, claimed the honour of a triumph; but it was refused by the senate. He then, though not twenty years of age, demanded the consulship, for which the legitimate age was forty-three. For this purpose he sent a deputation of his officers to Rome, and when the senate demurred, one of them threw back his cloak, and showing the hilt of his sword, said, "This will make him if you will not." Cæsar himself soon arrived, and he and his cousin Pedius were made the consuls. He forthwith caused a law to be passed for bringing to trial all that were concerned in his uncle's death.

The Triumvirate.

Antony had joined Lépidus, who commanded in Gaul, and they sent secretly to Cæsar proposing a union against the republican party, by which they would be able to draw all the power of the state to themselves. He lent a willing ear to their proposals, and as they had now recrossed the Alps, he set out to give them the required meeting in the neighbourhood of the modern city of Bologna. The appointed place of interview was a small island in a river, within view of which each encamped, Cæsar on the one side, Antony and Lepidus on the other side of the stream. Lepidus first entered the island alone to examine it, and on his giving the signal that all was safe, the others advanced and passed over from the opposite banks by bridges, the guard of each of which was committed to three hundred men. They first searched each other to see that they had no concealed weapons about them, and then sat in conference for three days. They agreed that under the title of Triumvirs they should jointly hold the supreme power for five years, and appoint to all public offices; that Cæsar and Antony should prosecute the war against Brutus and Cassius, and

that at the end of the war, eighteen of the best towns in Italy, with their lands, should be taken from their owners, and given to the soldiers. They then, like Sulla, proceeded to draw up a proscription-list, containing the names of a great number of senators, and knights distinguished for their political opinions or for their wealth, in which list were included the brother of Lepidus and the uncle of Antony. They immediately sent off some soldiers to murder seventeen of the most obnoxious persons in the list, and the tumult made by them in searching after these unhappy persons threw the city into such consternation, that the consul Pedius died in consequence of the exertions he found it necessary to make in order to quiet the alarm of the people.

The Proscription.

Antony, who had a strong personal hatred to Cicero, had insisted on his name being inserted in the list. Cæsar at first refused, but he at length gave way. Cicero was at his villa near Tusculum when the fatal intelligence reached him. He set out for the sea-coast with his brother and nephew, who were also among the proscribed, intending to make his escape by sea. As they had no money,

his brother returned with his son to Rome to procure some ; but they were betrayed by their slaves and put to death. Cicero himself got on board a ship and sailed along the coast, but he landed again and went to one of his villas in Campania. He lay down and slept soundly, though a flock of crows, it is said, as if to warn him of his fate, made a continual noise, fluttering and crying about the house. His slaves being alarmed made him get up, and placing him in a litter, carried him through the woods toward the sea. The soldiers who were in quest of him arrived at the villa, and finding him gone, pursued him through the wood. When they came up the slaves were preparing to defend him, but he forbade them, and putting his head out of the litter, bade the soldiers do their office. They struck off his head and right hand ; and Lænas, their commander, a man whose life Cicero had once defended, took them, and carrying them to Rome, presented them to Antony as he was sitting in the Forum, for which he was rewarded by him with a large sum of money. The head and hand were then placed on the Rostra. It is said that Antony's wife, Fulvia, took the head of Cicero, spat in its face, and placing it in her lap, opened the mouth and pierced the tongue with her hair-pins.

We will now relate the fate of some of those who perished in those dreadful times. Salvius, a tribune, seeing his name in the fatal list, invited his friends to a banquet for the last time. As they were lying at table in the Roman manner, an officer entered, and bidding them remain as they were, took Salvius by the hair, and drawing his head over the table, cut it off. He then retired with it, bidding the guests remain quiet, lest a worse thing should befall them, and they sat in mute horror with the tribune's headless trunk till late in the night.

One of the prætors was going about with his son, who was canvassing for an office, attended by his lictors and his friends, when word came that his name was in the fatal list. Immediately they all abandoned him, and he fled out of the city and took refuge with one of his dependents who dwelt in a little hut in the suburbs: he there remained concealed for some time, till his own son, suspecting where he was, guided the soldiers to the place; for which service the triumvirs gave him his father's property.

Another person, who had been prætor, knowing that his son, a profligate youth, was intimate with Antony, begged of the officers to wait a

little till his son should use his influence for him ; but they laughed ~~at~~ him, and told him his son *had* used his influence, but for a different purpose. He then asked permission to see his daughter, and being allowed, he charged her to take no part of his property, lest her brother should accuse her to Antony.

The wife of Septimius carried on an improper commerce with a friend of Antony's, and wishing to be able to marry him, she got him to use his influence to have her husband's name put in the list of the proscribed. Her desire was complied with, and she was herself the first to inform Septimius. Not aware of her perfidy, he sought to escape ; but, pretending the greatest anxiety for his safety, she kept the doors fast shut till the soldiers came. That very day she celebrated her new marriage.

Salassus, who had escaped, returned to the city by night, and going to his own house, which had been sold, was kindly received by the porter, who had been sold along with it. The faithful slave concealed and kept him for some time in his own cell. At length he sent him one night to inform his wife, and to beg that she would come to see him. She manifested great willingness, but say-

ing that it might appear suspicious if she went by night with her maids, promised to go in the morning. As she delayed coming, the porter went to urge her, and Salassus, suspecting his fidelity, quitted the cell and went upon the roof of the house, and thence as he looked down into the street, he saw his wife herself acting as guide to the soldiers. He instantly flung himself down from the roof and was killed.

All, however, were not equally bad ; wives, sons and slaves acted nobly toward some, especially the slaves.

Ligarius was concealed by his wife, but one of her female slaves, in whom she had confided, betrayed him. When his head was carried to the triumvirs, his wife followed it, crying as she went along, "*I concealed him ; those who conceal are liable to the same penalty ;*" and when no one took note of what she said, she repeated the same words before the triumvirs. But even they would not punish an act of duty and affection, and she then starved herself to death.

One person being about to seek safety in flight, his wife threatened to inform against him if he left her behind. She accompanied him, and they and their servants succeeded in escaping to Sicily.

Another lady had her husband bound up in her bedding, and got porters to carry it down to the sea-side. Another concealed her husband during the day in the place where she thought the soldiers would be least likely to search, and at night she dressed him as a charcoal man and gave him an ass laden with charcoal to lead out of the town, while she herself followed at a little distance in her litter. One of the guards of the gate having stopped the litter to examine it, the husband, who had passed out, ran back and besought him to spare his wife. The soldier taking him for what he appeared to be, was giving him a rough reply, when he recognized him, having served under him in Syria. "Go in safety, general," said he, "for such you are still to me;" and he let them pass.

The son of one man made a funeral-pile in his court-yard, as if his father had died, and secretly conveyed him away to an estate he had lately purchased, where the old man, to disguise himself, put a patch over one of his eyes, and wore it so long that he lost the sight of the eye. Another son took his father, who was far advanced in years, upon his back, and carried him openly out of the gate of the city, and thence all along Italy, till he was able to convey him to Sicily. No one

ever attempted to stop him, such was the respect his filial piety and courage excited ; and some time after, the people of Rome, to reward him, raised him to the office of ædile. As, in consequence of his paternal property having been confiscated, he had not the means of defraying the usual expenses of the office, in giving plays and shows, the tradespeople all gave him their labour for nothing, and in the theatre the people flung so much money on the stage that they made him a rich man. Another person, who was preserved by his son, directed in his will that the following inscription should be placed on his tomb : “The son of him who lies here, though not proscribed himself, concealed him when proscribed, fled with him and saved him.”

A man named Restio fled as he thought alone, but he was secretly followed by one of his slaves, whom he used to treat with great kindness, but whom he had lately branded for his ill-conduct. As he was lying down concealing himself in a marsh, the slave stood over him. Restio trembled ; but the slave said, “Do not think that I am more mindful of these brands than of your former kindness ;” and he took him and concealed him in a cavern, where he supplied him with such food

as he could procure. Some soldiers, however, hearing of the cavern, and suspecting that Restio might be there, set out to search it. The slave ran before them, and meeting an old man on the way, killed him and cut off his head. When the soldiers came up and seized him, he cried, "I have killed Restio, my master, who put these brands on me." They believing him, took the head in order to get the reward, and he conveyed his master over to Sicily.

The slave of one man, when the soldiers came to the house, changed clothes with his master, and lay on his couch and was killed in his stead. The slave of another, when the soldiers came, got into his master's litter and made his fellow-slaves carry him till the soldiers followed and killed him. The master meantime escaped.

Another person, who had a charming cool grotto on his land, was proscribed for the sake of it. He happened to be in his grotto when the soldiers were seen approaching; one of his slaves made him go into the most retired part of it, and then dressing himself in his clothes and feigning terror, as if he were the master, presented himself to the soldiers, who would have killed him only that one of his fellow-slaves informed them of the

truth. This noble instance of fidelity thus proved without effect, but it did not go without reward ; for the people of Rome, when they heard of it, obliged the magistrates to give the faithful slave his liberty and to crucify the informer.

Some saved themselves by their courage. Pomponius dressed himself as a prætor, and his slaves as lictors and other attendants, and making them keep close about him that he might not be recognized, went thus through the city out at the gates, and mounting a carriage provided at the public expense, travelled along Italy, and then passed over to Sicily, as if he was an envoy from the triumvirs to Pompey. Two other persons contrived to get out of Rome by dressing themselves as officers and their slaves as soldiers sent in pursuit of some of the proscribed.

It was fortunate for the proscribed that they had some places of refuge. The younger Pompey, who had escaped from Munda, had a large fleet and was master of Sicily, and great numbers escaped to him ; others went to Brutus, who was in Greece, others fled to Africa.

CHAPTER XV.

Battle of Philippi.

WHEN the triumvirs had satiated themselves with blood and robbery, Antony and Cæsar passed over with an army to Macedonia to engage Brutus and Cassius, who were at the head of a considerable force in that country, having collected men and money in Asia. It is said, that as Brutus, previous to their passage over into Europe, was sitting up late one night reading in his tent, he beheld a strange and terrific-looking figure standing beside him. He asked who it was and for what purpose it had come. The phantom replied, "I am thy evil genius; thou wilt see me at Philippi." "I shall see thee, then," said Brutus calmly, and the figure vanished.

The two armies met near the town of Philippi. As the advantage in point of position was on the side of the republicans, Cassius, who was a good general, wished to avoid an engagement, but he was obliged to yield to the impatience of his troops. In the action which ensued Antony defeated Cassius and took his camp, while Brutus routed Cæsar's troops and took *their* camp. Cassius, who

had retired to an eminence, seeing a body of horsemen coming toward him, sent one of his friends to ascertain who they were, and observing that they received his messenger among them, and still continued to advance, while, being short-sighted, he could not ascertain whether they were friends or enemies,—he took them for the last, and withdrawing into a lonely hut, he made a faithful freedman strike off his head. When the horseman, who had been sent by Brutus, came up, his friend, who was with them, slew himself, and Brutus, arriving soon after, wept over him, calling him the last of the Romans.

In about three weeks after, Brutus was obliged by his troops to give the triumvirs battle again. Though his men fought with desperation, he was defeated. He took shelter for the night under a rock in a valley with his friends, where he passed the hours enumerating and lamenting over those that had fallen. Toward morning he tried to prevail on some of those who were with him to kill him, but they all refused. After some time he retired with two or three of his friends, and one of them having consented to hold his sword for him, he threw himself on it and died.

Antony and Cleopatra.

The victory at Philippi ended the war, and the only concern of the triumvirs now was to provide the means of rewarding their soldiers: accordingly, while Cæsar returned to Italy to plunder innocent people of their houses and lands for these military ruffians, Antony proceeded to Asia to rob the people there of their money for them, and also to obtain the means of gratifying his own appetites; and the sums which he extorted from the unfortunate people were enormous.

When he was at Tarsus, in Cilicia, he summoned Cleopatra to his presence. She was now sole ruler of Egypt, having murdered her brother; but it was not on account of that crime that he summoned her; it was for not having aided the triumvirs in the late war. She came: at the mouth of the river Cydnus she entered a barge, the poop of which was adorned with gold, and its sails were purple; the oars were set with silver, and the rowers kept time to the sound of flutes and lyres. The queen, dressed like the goddess Venus, reclined beneath an umbrella embroidered with gold, while boys, adorned like Cupids, stood fanning her; her female attend-

ants were around her in the habits of the Graces and the Nereides or Sea-nymphs, and costly spices and perfumes were burnt before her. When the news of her approach reached Tarsus, all the people of the city crowded to behold her, and Antony was left sitting alone on his tribunal in the market-place. He sent to invite the queen to supper, but she insisted on his coming to sup with her, and the next day he tried in vain to equal the variety and elegance of the entertainment which she gave him. The artful enchantress soon gained her object; Antony became her devoted slave; he gave up her sister and others to her vengeance, and laying aside all thoughts of the war which he had been meditating against the Parthians, he accompanied her to Egypt, where he abandoned himself wholly to luxury and enjoyment in her society.

Cæsar in Italy.

Cæsar meantime was engaged in depriving the people of Italy of their lands for his soldiers. The poet Virgil, who was one of the sufferers, but who recovered his lands by means of his poetry, has given affecting pictures of the misery occasioned by this wholesale robbery. Antony's wife Fulvia,

and his brother Lucius, took advantage of the discontent caused by it to kindle a new war in Italy, but Cæsar proved too strong for them. Fulvia fled to Greece, where she died; and as Antony came to Italy on account of that war, Cæsar gave him in marriage his sister Octavia, one of the most amiable and virtuous women that Rome ever possessed. But all her virtues were lost on the worthless Antony, who soon after abandoned her for the wanton queen of Egypt. Cæsar, who had conquered Pompey and deprived Lepidus of his share in the triumvirate, made the ill-treatment of his sister a pretext for war, and both sides prepared to commence hostilities.

Battle of Actium.

The cape of Actium, on the coast of Epirus, witnessed this last conflict for the Roman empire. Each had a large army and a large fleet; but by the desire of Cleopatra, who was present, Antony, contrary to the advice of his best officers, resolved that the first engagement should be a naval one. On the 2nd of September the fleets engaged. The action was maintained for some time with great courage on both sides, till in the midst of it, whether from treachery or cowardice, Cleopatra

fled, followed by all the Egyptian ships. Antony, when he saw her flying, instead of, like a brave man, despising her and letting her go whither she pleased, while he should continue to fight for victory and honour, left the battle and followed her. His naval forces, worthy of a nobler commander, kept up the engagement till the evening, when finding that he had deserted them, they submitted to Cæsar, and a few days after the land army followed their example.

When Antony overtook Cleopatra, he went on board of her ship, where he sat for three days in silence, refusing to see her. At length her women brought about a reconciliation, and they proceeded to Egypt, which they began to put into a state of defence against Cæsar. Meantime their days were passed in feasting and revelry, as if no storms menaced their repose. They sent to implore the clemency of Cæsar; the queen offered to resign her crown; Antony prayed to be allowed to live in a private station at Athens. Cæsar did not condescend to make him any reply, but he assured the queen of favour if she drove Antony away or put him to death.

Cleopatra had at first caused ships to be made ready in the Red Sea, with the intention of flying

with her treasures to some distant region; but the Arabs of the desert attacked and burned her ships, and thus frustrated her design. She then caused a kind of sepulchre to be built, in which she placed her things of greatest value, and covered them with combustibles, with the intention, she declared, of burning them and herself together if driven to it.

Deaths of Antony and Cleopatra.

When Cæsar's fleet and army approached Alexandria, Antony prepared to engage them; but his fleet, instead of attacking, joined that of the enemy; his cavalry followed the example, and his infantry was forced to lay down its arms. He turned to the town in a rage, crying that Cleopatra had ruined and betrayed him. That artful princess, who had shut herself up in her newly-built sepulchre, then caused a report to be spread of her death. This report revived the tenderness of Antony, and he resolved not to survive her. He called on his faithful freedman Eros, who had sworn to kill him when required, to perform his promise. Eros drew his sword, but plunged it into his own bosom, and fell dead at his feet. Antony then drew his own sword and stabbed himself.

The wound not proving immediately fatal, he threw himself on his bed writhing in agony, and calling on his friends to despatch him. Cleopatra meantime, hearing of what he had done, sent to inform him that she was alive, and to request that he would let himself be carried to her retreat. As she would not venture to ^{pass} the door, she and her maids drew him up by ^{ropes} ~~chains~~ at a window, and she then abandoned herself to the most extravagant grief. Antony tried to console her, and he breathed his last in her arms.

One of Cæsar's officers contrived by stratagem to effect an entrance into Cleopatra's sepulchre, and she was obliged to surrender herself and her treasures. Cæsar treated her with much consideration, and he allowed her to celebrate the funeral of Antony with great magnificence. He then made her a visit. She received him slightly attired, her hair in disorder, her eyes filled with tears, and her voice weak and tremulous. He laboured to console her; she hoped to fascinate him like his uncle and Antony; but he only wished to have her to grace his triumph. A few days after she learned that such was his intention, and she resolved to disappoint him. She visited Antony's tomb, which she kissed and crowned

